

SECOND VOLUME

O F

UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

COMMENCING WITH THE YEAR 536,

A N D

ENDING IN THE YEAR 331, BEFORE CHRIST,

WHEN ALEXANDER THE GREAT OVERTURNED
THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

I N L E T T E R S

FROM A FATHER TO HIS SON.

BY FRANCIS DOBBS, ESQ.

L O N D O N :

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SECOND VOLUME

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BY FRANCIS DODGE

FROM A MANUSCRIPT

BY FRANCIS DODGE

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FOURTH ERA

OF
Universal History,

*Commencing with the Year 536, and ending
331, when Alexander overturned the Persian
Empire.*

FIRST LETTER.

CYRUS having conquered Darius in the year 536, began his reign by a decree in favour of the Israelites. As the Prophet Jeremiah had foretold, this was exactly seventy

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years from the time that Nebuchadnezzar first took Jerusalem, and carried most of the principal Jews into captivity.

Zerubabel, a Jew of the royal blood, by virtue of the edict of Cyrus, assembled 42,360 of the Israelites. These were made up from all the tribes except Dan; and having received those vessels of silver and gold, which had belonged to their temple, they proceeded to Judea. On their arrival, the Samaritans offered to assist them in rebuilding their city and temple, at the same time claiming a descent from Jacob. But the Jews denied all affinity, and absolutely refused the aid which they offered. From whence, a rooted enmity took place, that continued to the latest period of their history.

During the reigns of Cyrus and Cambyfes, the Samaritans found means to throw insuperable obstacles in the way of the Jews; who were neither able to rebuild their city or temple. But when Darius Hystaspes mounted the Persian throne, he not only renewed

the decree of Cyrus, but he even taxed the Samaritans, for the purpose of restoring Jerusalem. This edict was exactly seventy years, from the final destruction of that city in the year 588, and the prophecy of Jeremiah had thereby a double accomplishment.

In the year 515, the Jewish temple was at length finished and dedicated; though in a very humble style, when compared to that which had been raised by Solomon. Indeed it appears, that the most wealthy of the Israelites, preferred their settlements in the province of Babylon. But little progress was therefore made in restoring the grandeur of the nation. And Jerusalem was not even surrounded by a wall, when Artaxerxes, or Ahasuerus, mounted the Persian throne.

His accession happened in the year 464; and falling in love with a beautiful Jewess, whose name was Esther, he made her his Queen. By her interest, she raised her uncle Mordecai to be the prime minister of Artaxerxes: And Ezra, a Jewish Priest, took care

to profit by circumstances so favourable to his nation. He obtained fresh powers and privileges for the Israelites, and gathering together a considerable body of those who remained in the province of Babylon, he set out for Judea in the year 456 or 457.

Ezra had however more difficulties to encounter than he was aware of, and notwithstanding his utmost efforts, Jerusalem continued in a desolate state. When this was represented at the Persian court, Nehemiah, a righteous Jew, who was cup-bearer to the King, undertook the cause of his country. And he got himself appointed to superintend the restoration of the Jewish city and kingdom.

Before this, Ezra had collected the sacred writings, and restored the Jewish polity and worship. But he had been able to do little or nothing as to their worldly grandeur. When Nehemiah arrived in the year 444, he therefore began, with surrounding the city with a strong wall. At first the Samaritans

destroyed by night the work of the day. However, the prudence of Nehemiah overcame this and every other obstacle. He finished his wall, and then directing his attention to other improvements; both Jerusalem, and its territories, began to put forth some signs of their former magnificence.

Sanballat, the governor of Samaria, about this time erected a temple on mount Gerizin, in imitation of that which was at Jerusalem. He then appointed his son-in-law Manasseh to its High Priesthood; by whom the Mosaic form of worship was adhered to, though the Samaritans still continued to blend their own notions with the Israelitish ordinances. Manasseh was himself the son of Johanan, the High Priest of Jerusalem. But his marriage with the daughter of Sanballat being contrary to law, he thus procured a settlement in Samaria.

After the departure of Nehemiah, both the civil and religious authority vested in the High Priest. The prefect of Syria had, however,

a superior jurisdiction, whenever he chose to interfere. From this time nothing material happened to the Jews, till the reign of Artaxerxes Ochus, which began in the year 359. They then revolted, but were quickly subdued. And there was no other occurrence worth notice, till the times of Alexander the Great.

When that Prince besieged the city of Tyre, he applied to the Jews for provisions. They were absolutely refused by Jadda, the High Priest, who had sworn allegiance to the Persian Monarch. This most highly irritated the Macedonian King; and Tyre had no sooner fallen to him, than he turned his arms against Judea.

Jadda had no forces to oppose him; therefore dressing himself in his pontifical robes, and accompanied by the principal citizens of Jerusalem, he went forth to implore the mercy of the Conqueror. But what must have been the surprise of both Jews and Greeks, when Alexander prostrated himself at the feet of Jadda! He did not leave them

long to conjecture the cause of so strange a proceeding: For he immediately declared, he had some time before, beheld in a vision, just such a man, who assured him, he should subdue the Persian Empire. In this he was still further confirmed by the High Priest, who having conducted him into Jerusalem, shewed him the prophecies of Daniel. There it was written, that the first great Horn, or King of Greece, should destroy the Medo-Persian Empire. And Alexander was so highly pleased, that he not only sacrificed in the Jewish temple, but also confirmed all their rights and privileges.

During the siege of Tyre, the Samaritans had sent him both forces and provisions. They therefore applied for the same favour which had been shewn to the Jews; and with some difficulty obtained it. But a favourite officer belonging to Alexander being afterwards slain in a tumult at the city of Samaria, he revoked their privileges. He also destroyed the city—removed its inhabitants; and

planted a colony of Macedonians in their stead. The rest of the Samaritans, thereupon, strengthened and beautified the city of Shechem, which from thenceforth became their capital.

I shall now proceed to the Medo-Perſian Empire. Cyrus, its founder, ſubjected all the eaſtern countries, as far as the river Indus. On the north his arms extended to the Caſpian and Black Sea. The Egean and Mediterranean bounded him weſtward; whiſt on the ſouth, his juriſdiction reached to Ethiopia, and the Arabian gulph. No man before him poſſeſſed ſuch extenſive dominions: And he endeavoured to deſerve this ſuperiority, by making thoſe he governed happy.

The manner of his death is differently reported. It is however pretty certain, his reign did not continue more than ſeven years. And according to all hiſtorians, his juſtice, wiſdom, and valour, well entitled him to the appellation of Great, by which he has been recorded to poſterity.

Cambyfes, his fon and fucceffor, was not long on the throne, when Amafis, King of Egypt, fhook off the yoke. But before the Perfian Monarch reached Egypt, he was dead; and Pfammenitus, who next poffeffed the crown, likewise refufed the ufual tribute. A battle was the confequence, which proving decifive in favour of Cambyfes, Pfammenitus, with his nobles, retired to the city of Memphis. Its walls however afforded a very fhort refpite; for it was foon after befieged and taken by Cambyfes.

Before Memphis was invefted, a herald fent by the Perfian Monarch, with the failors that accompanied him, had been put to death by the Egyptians of that city. For this, Cambyfes refolved on a dreadful revenge. Pfammenitus and his nobles were gathered together, and the firft thing they faw, was their daughters habited like flaves, and carrying pitchers of water. The next proceffion, was their fons leading to execution, with bits in their mouths, and halters round their necks.

And to close the cruel scene, the Egyptian King was, in a short time after, forced to end his existence by a draught of bullock's blood.

Nor was the resentment of the cruel Cambyfes confined to the living. The body of Amasis was taken from its sepulchre, and having mangled it with his sword, he caused it to be reduced to ashes. He also slew the Bull Apis, at the same time scourging his Priests. And by every possible means, he oppressed and insulted the vanquished Egyptians.

Ethiopia had, at this period, a Monarch of its own. To him Cambyfes sent, requiring submission; but besides refusing to comply, that Prince added a most insulting defiance. He sent the Persian King a great bow, desiring him not to think of entering Ethiopia till he found forces who could make use of such arms. This was attempted in vain, by all but Smerdis, the King's brother. This strength, however, cost him his life: For the infamous

Cambyfes, jealous of fuch a fuperiority, caufed him to be put to death.

Raging with paffion, Cambyfes now refolved to attack Ethiopia. But in the attempt he loft fo many men, by fatigue and climate, as compelled him to abandon that undertaking. Irritated by this difappointment, his favage difpofition knew no bounds. His nobles, his attendants, and even his favourites, fell victims to his caprice. One inftance was fo uncommonly horrid, that I fhall particularize it. Having asked Prexafpes what his people faid of him, the favourite unfortunately answered, that though they highly approved of him, they thought it would be better if he was more abftemious. Cambyfes concealed his difpleafure till after dinner, when having drank freely, he caufed the fon of Prexafpes, who was his cup-bearer, to ftand in a corner of the room. He then took a bow and arrow, with which he fhoot him through the heart. At the fame time demanding of the father, who was prefent, if

wine had affected his hand. When, fearful of a similar fate, Prexaspes replied, that he shot like a god.

Before he left Egypt, he destroyed its idols and temples: Having also plundered that country of all the riches he could find, he set out on his return to Persia: but when he reached Syria, he received the unwelcome news, of a usurper being placed upon his throne. During his absence, he had left the government to Patizithes, one of the Magi. This man, having a brother extremely like Smerdis, passed him for that Prince. For finding how obnoxious Cambyfes had become, it was given out that the King's brother had escaped the death that was ordered him; on which the fictitious Smerdis was gladly received, and acknowledged by the Persians. Fearful of the effect this story might have upon the troops, Prexaspes was now ordered to declare publicly, that he had put the real Smerdis to death. But Cambyfes's hour was come, for in mounting his horse, he, by some

means, received a wound from his own sword, of which he in a short time expired.

The supposed Smerdis did not long preserve his usurped power. Seven noblemen of Persia having found out the cheat, forced their way into the palace, and put both him and his brother to death. The people were at the same time convinced of this imposture; and extending their resentment to all the Magi, a very general massacre of that order took place. This great Empire being now without a head, these noblemen, who had brought about this revolution, fixed on a plan for disposing of the vacant crown. They agreed to meet on horseback, at an appointed place, and the sceptre was to belong to the owner of that horse which first neighed. This proved to be Darius, the son of Hytaspes. But he owed his exaltation to a stratagem, for the evening before, his groom had brought a mare to his horse on that spot; and he immediately, on returning to it, neighed for his companion.

Hystaspes, the father of Darius, had travelled into India, conversing with the Gymnosophists and Brachmans of that country, who were highly celebrated for their wisdom. Zoroaster, another Persian, had also visited Chaldaea, and other kingdoms, in the pursuit of knowledge. These two united in reforming the religion of their country. The almost universal destruction of the Magi, rendered their plan extremely practicable. And in lieu of worshipping deified kings, and other idols, rites were now instituted that were scarcely, if at all, idolatrous. Some authors alledge, an earlier Zoroaster; but he who was cotemporary with Darius Hystaspes, is undoubtedly the Philosopher to whom the Persians were so much indebted.

In the beginning of Darius's reign Babylon revolted. It was soon subdued; and the Scythians having made several inroads into the Empire, Darius resolved, in his turn, to attack their dominions. They were not able to meet him in a pitched battle; but they had

the means of effectually baffling all his exertions. Having no fixed habitations, they every where retired before him; and his army was gradually diminished, by the fatigues and inhospitable climes which he encountered. He penetrated into the countries beyond the Danube; till at length, perceiving the impracticability of conquering these itinerants, he retreated by the way of Thrace. In that kingdom he formed a settlement, which he left Megabyzus, one of his Generals, to command. And Megabyzus, soon after, obliged Amyntas, King of Macedon, to become tributary to Persia.

It is said, that Darius now turned his arms against India, obliging several of its Princes to acknowledge his superiority. Towards the close of his reign, he was, however, obliged to exert himself in another quarter; for a general revolt took place amongst the Grecian cities of Asia-Minor.

Hippias, the tyrant of Athens, had been expelled, and flying into Asia-Minor, he was

received and protected by Artaphernes, the brother of Darius, and governor of that province. Instead of delivering him up, when demanded by the Athenians, Artaphernes declared, he would oblige them to receive him as their Sovereign. Athens therefore commenced hostilities; and on sending a powerful fleet to Asia-Minor, all the Greeks in that quarter threw off the yoke which Cyrus had imposed.

Artaphernes was by no means prepared for such an attack. He therefore shut himself up in the citadel of Sardis, whilst not only that city, but every other part of his government, was abandoned to the enemy. But Artaphernes was soon reinforced, and, in his turn, he proved successful. At length, the Athenians were obliged to relinquish Asia-Minor; and in a short time all the Greek cities of that province were again subjected to the Persians.

Darius was so incensed at this late revolt, that he commanded a servant every morning, to bid him remember the Athenians. Hav-

ing raised a powerful armament, he ordered his son in law Mardonius to carry the war into Attica. For this purpose he was first to pass into Thrace; but in the attempt a great part of his fleet was destroyed by a dreadful storm. And not being able to do any thing effectual with the forces that escaped, Mardonius re-passed into Asia Minor.

This disappointment only served to stimulate the resentment of Darius. A much greater force was soon equipped, and Artaphernes and Datis were ordered to replace Hippias in the tyranny of Athens. In their way thither they took and plundered the islands of Naxos and Euboea. And having disembarked their troops on the continent, they took post in the plains of Marathon. This was very near Athens, which was now required to submit to the Persian arms.

The Athenians had only 10,000 men to oppose ten times that number. But far from being intimidated, they resolved to engage the enemy. And by the conduct and cou-

rage of Miltiades their leader, victory declared for Athens. In this battle Hippias and multitudes of the Persians perished. The rest fled to their ships, seven of which were taken, and many more destroyed. Thus ended an expedition, in which the Persians were so confident of success, that they brought chains to bind their prisoners, and marble to record their victories.

On the news of this signal defeat Darius resolved to conduct the war in person. He therefore issued orders through all his wide extended empire for the most prodigious preparations. But death arrested his purpose; and he expired in the year 485, after a reign of 36 years.

Xerxes, his son and successor, inherited his father's resentment against Athens. The revolt of Egypt, however, for a little diverted the invasion of Greece. On its being again subjected, all his forces were ordered to assemble at Sardis. A bridge of boats was then directed to be thrown over the narrow sea

from Sestos to Abydus. And as Mardonius's fleet had been mostly lost by doubling the cape, occasioned by Mount Athos, Xerxes now determined to cut a passage for his ships through that promontory. This he is said to have effected, but his bridge of boats, when almost compleated, was destroyed by a storm.

Xerxes had such absurd notions of his power, that he wrote a letter to Mount Athos, before his workmen began, to open a passage through it. In this, he threatened to throw it altogether into the ocean, if it did not submit to what he had directed. In the same strain he now ordered the sea to receive 300 stripes, and fetters to be thrown into it. To this folly he added cruelty, putting the unfortunate men, who had been employed at his bridge to death. And then two new bridges were began, the one for his foot, and the other for his horses and carriages. This great undertaking being at length accomplished, all his forces encamped on the plains of Abydus,

whilst his fleet appeared upon the neighbouring seas.

Authors differ as to the number led by Xerxes into Europe. Reckoning all the followers of the camp, and those on board the navy; it is however supposed that upwards of four millions were employed in this expedition. When Xerxes, from an high tower, contemplated this vast display of his own greatness, his first emotions were those of excessive joy. Yet when he reflected that in a few years neither himself, nor one of all he beheld, would be in existence, he dissolved into tears. Happy would it have been for Greece and Asia had he attended to these latter feelings. But vain glory soon predominated, and orders were issued to pass the Hellespont.

Thrace, Thessaly, and Macedon quickly acknowledged the power of Xerxes, and increased his forces. Besides the provocation given to Darius, the Athenians had also put to death an herald from Xerxes. They had therefore nothing to hope from clemency,

But their courage was well suited to their situation. And having obtained what aid they could, instead of despairing, they boldly entered on this unequal contest.

Xerxes could not possibly reach Athens without passing the Streights of Thermopylæ. They were formed by two mountains, and so narrow that a few men only could enter them abreast. Leonidas, one of the Spartan kings, with 300 of his countrymen, and as many more Greeks, as made his detachment 4000, here took post. Seven thousand more remained in the vicinity of Athens under the command of Themistocles. And these were all the forces that were to contend with the millions led by Xerxes.

Great as his numbers were the Persian monarch did not like the situation of Leonidas. He therefore solicited him to surrender, at the same time offering to make him tributary king of Greece. The brave and generous Spartan rejected every overture, and threats were then used instead of negotiation.

Xerxes ordered him to send his arms on pain of destruction: To which Leonidas only replied that he might come and take them. Irritated by this Laconic defiance, the van of the Persian army was ordered to bring the Spartan monarch in chains. They were however repulsed with great slaughter; and the immortal Persian band of 10,000, so called from its numbers being kept compleat, next advanced. After the loss of most of its men, the remainder retreated; and various other bodies were equally unsuccessful. So that for a few days it seemed that Leonidas and his detachment would have counteracted all these vast preparations.

In this situation a perfidious Greek bargained with Xerxes for the ruin of his country. There was a secret path over one of the mountains, by which a body of forces might get round upon Leonidas. This being disclosed to the Persians, they instantly took advantage of it; and Leonidas no sooner perceived that they had, than he knew his post

was no longer tenable. He therefore sent all but his Spartans back to Themistocles; and according to the general custom of his country, he resolved to perish rather than to fly. In this he was further confirmed by an oracle which had declared, that Greece should escape provided a Spartan king was slain in the contest.

Small as were the Spartan numbers they did not perish unrevenged; and only one of the 300 survived the conflict. In all the different attacks on Thermopylæ, not less than 20,000 fell on the part of Persia, amongst whom were two of the King's brothers. And Xerxes, in revenge for these losses, cut off the head, and exposed the body of the Spartan king upon a cross. But posterity hath done justice to both. Xerxes being the subject of scorn and detestation, whilst the brave and virtuous Leonidas continues through all ages the object of applause and admiration.

During the delay at Thermopylæ the Persian fleet suffered considerably by a storm.

Taking advantage of this the Grecian navy had ventured an engagement on the very day that the Streights were gained by Xerxes. And notwithstanding their great inferiority the Greeks had made it a drawn battle. Themistocles therefore determined to hazard all upon the ocean: In which resolution he was confirmed by an oracle that had predicted, that Athens should be saved by her wooden walls. Athens being now abandoned it was taken by the Persians, and levelled with the ground. Xerxes then dispatched a body of troops to plunder the temple at Delphos. In it they found vast riches: And he was preparing to extend his conquest over the rest of Greece, when the defeat of his fleet gave a very different complexion to his affairs.

The combined navy of Greece amounted to no more than 380 sail, whilst that of Persia was upwards of 2000. With such an inequality the Greeks wisely took post in the narrow sea between Salamis and the continent; thereby preventing the enemy from

bringing all their force at once into action. Xerxes was now infidiously informed that the Greek ships meditated a retreat, to prevent which he gave orders for an immediate attack. This ended in the overthrow of the Persian fleet; nor would any of it have escaped, but for the courage and conduct of a woman. Artemisia, queen of Halycarnassus in Asia Minor, a tributary to Xerxes, had furnished five ships which she commanded in person; and when the Persians began to fly this gallant princess covered their rear. This afforded them an opportunity of retiring; and by her brave exertions she likewise secured her own retreat.

Such of the Persian ships as escaped were so entirely dispersed, as to leave their antagonists the decided masters of the ocean. This effectually blasted the ambitious hopes of Xerxes; for all Greece could not long have afforded sustenance to his forces. He therefore resolved to leave Macedonia with 300,000 men to carry on the war, and all the rest of the troops set out for the bridges in

order to repass into Asia. Xerxes, with only a few followers, went before them, but to add to his disappointments, he found that the winds and waves had destroyed his bridges. He was therefore forced to cross the Hellespont in a small boat, and to send as many ships as the neighbouring coasts would furnish, to reconvey his army: But the greatest part of it perished from want and fatigue, and a few thousands only returned to Asia-Minor.

Mardonius wintered in the tributary kingdoms of Thessaly and Macedon, whilst the different states of Greece were busy in preparing for the ensuing campaign. Their forces were to rendezvous at Corinth, under the command of Pausanias, the brother of the great Leonidas; who acted as one of the Spartan Kings, during the minority of his nephew Plistarchus. Mardonius however was first in the field, and Athens again fell into the hands of the Persians, its forces being at Corinth under the command of Aristides. But the triumph of Mardonius was of short

duration. He was defeated in an action that took place at Platæa; and his camp, to which he had retired, was then taken by storm, and he himself was amongst the slain. In it the victors found considerable riches; and of all the forces left by Xerxes, under the command of Mardonius, 40,000 only escaped from the battle of Platæa. These, instead of taking shelter in the camp, immediately set out for the Hellespont. And they were so fortunate, as to make good their passage over the narrow sea, which separates Europe from Asia.

Leotychides, the other Spartan King, commanded the Grecian fleet, with which he had gone in pursuit of the Persian navy, it having re-assembled. They however fled before him, and at length took shelter in the port of Mycale, in Asia-Minor. Here the remains of Xerxes's army had also taken post, and the sailors drawing their ships on shore, added to the encampment. But Leotychides disembarked his forces likewise, and success attended his arms. Many of the Persians

were slain on this occasion, and the remainder fled with precipitation. Both the fleet and camp then fell into the hands of the Grecians. And this event is said to have taken place on the very day that Mardonius lost the battle of Platæa.

Xerxes, who had hitherto continued at Sardis, now abandoned every idea of conquering Greece. Incapable of noble sentiments, he however let loose his resentment against the Greeks of Asia-Minor. All their temples were consumed by his orders, except that of Diana at Ephesus. In return, those cities soon after revolted, as did also Cyprus, and several other islands. Xanthippus, the Athenian Admiral, likewise took those places in Thrace, which had belonged to the Persians. And Xerxes, heartily tired of war, suffered these dismemberments of his Empire with little or no opposition.

After the battle of Mycale, Xerxes returned to Susa in Persia, where he gave himself up to the most infamous debaucheries: And

the gratification of his lusts were, in some instances, attended with the most horrid acts of cruelty. At length, Artabanus, one of his principal officers, formed a conspiracy against him, and put him to death in the 21st year of his reign. His eldest son, Darius, was at the same time dispatched. And the second, named Hytaspes, being absent at his government of Bactria, Artaxerxes, who was the third, took possession of the sceptre.

All power was however in Artabanus, and having seven sons, he gave them the most important appointments in the state. It is supposed he aimed at the sovereignty, and that a plot was actually formed against Artaxerxes. But that Menarch was beforehand with him, for he caused Artabanus to be put to death. His sons, who then flew to arms, perished in the attempt: and Hytaspes being also defeated, Artaxerxes was from thenceforth firmly seated on the throne. It was this King who married Esther, the beautiful Jewess, and who, on her account, was so friendly to that nation.

About the fifth year of his reign, the Egyptians threw off the yoke, electing Inarus, a Prince of Lybia, for their King. The Athenians, glad of an opportunity to retaliate on the Persians, sent a fleet of 200 sail, with a considerable body of forces, to the aid of Inarus. They were opposed by a Persian navy, but the latter being beaten, the Greeks were landed in Egypt, under the command of Charytimis, their General: And at the same time Cimon, the son of Miltiades, was also harraffing the Persians in a different quarter.

In Egypt the Persians were no longer able to keep the field, and Achæmenides, the brother of Artaxerxes, being slain, the remnant of his troops shut themselves up in the city of Memphis. In order to force the Athenians to quit the service of Inarus, the Persian Monarch planned a fresh attack upon Athens. And as Themistocles was then in his court, having before been banished from his native city, he applied to him to conduct this enterprize. Themistocles had received

the most generous treatment from the King, having a support more suited to a Prince than to an exile : But though the highest gratitude possessed his heart, he could not forget that Athens was his country. In this dreadful situation, he resolved on as dreadful an expedient. For after entertaining his friends in the most splendid manner, and with so much cheerfulness as not to betray his design, he put an end to his life. And though suicide can in no instance be justified, I know not one in which it appears to have been committed from more laudable motives.

Artaxerxes had expected success against Athens, solely from a reliance on the skill of Themistocles. On his death, he therefore abandoned the design, and instead of it, Megabyzus, the governor of Syria, was ordered into Egypt, at the head of 300,000 men. To co-operate with him, Artabazus sailed from Cilicia with a considerable naval equipment ; and entering the Nile, their united forces were truly formidable. Memphis was relieved, having stood out during three years ;

and Inarus was in his turn besieged in Byblus, a city on one of the islands in the mouth of the Nile. He was at length forced to surrender; and fifty sail of Athenian ships, not knowing of this change, soon after fell into the hands of the Persians.

Amyrteus, a General of Inarus, had yet a body of forces under his command. They were however obliged to retreat into the marshy country near Ethiopia, and Egypt was again reduced to subjection. Artabazus, on his return, also conquered a considerable part of the island of Cyprus. But notwithstanding these advantages, the victories of Cimon, both by sea and on the coasts of Asia, were so decisive, that Artaxerxes longed for peace, and it was concluded, on the following humiliating terms:—That all the Greek cities of Asia-Minor should be free, and governed by their own laws. That no Persian ships should navigate between the Euxine sea and the coast of Pamphylia. That no Persian army should come within three days march of those seas. And that the Athe-

nians, on their part, should not commit any hostilities on the territories or subjects of Persia.

Artaxerxes was succeeded in the year 425, by Xerxes, his only legitimate son. He reigned only two months, being cut off by Sogdianus, his bastard brother. This wretch also dispatched such of the principal men as he supposed inimical to his usurpation: But these bloody measures, instead of securing him, paved the way for his destruction. The Persians readily repaired to the standard of Nothus, another illegitimate son of Artaxerxes; and Sogdianus being put to death, after a reign of only seven months, Nothus possessed himself of the Persian sceptre.

Darius Nothus, which is the name by which this Monarch is recorded, was for some time disturbed in the enjoyment of his crown. He had several engagements with Artabazus, another illegitimate brother: And this competitor was scarcely defeated and slain, when Pisuthes, the governor of Lydia, set up for independence. His revolt was not

of long duration, being soon after put to death by Tiffaphernes, one of Darius's Generals. But in Egypt, the Persians were driven out by Amyrteus, who now assumed the regal dignity. He also entered into a league with the Arabs, and was about to invade Phoenicia. Darius however averted that disaster, though he was not able to reconquer Egypt. And except in these instances, his reign was passed in peace and tranquility.

The Persians were not molested by the Greeks for the nineteen years which Darius reigned. This was owing to the policy of Tiffaphernes, the governor of Lydia. He distributed Persian gold, with so much judgment amongst the leading men of Greece, as to keep them in perpetual broils amongst themselves; at the same time preserving a perfect neutrality as to arms. But Darius had removed Tiffaphernes some years before his death, giving the government of Asia-Minor to his son Cyrus. And Cyrus having openly declared for the Lacedæmonians, laid

the foundation of new contests between the Greeks and Persians.

In the year 405, Artaxerxes Mnemon ascended the throne of his father Darius. At his coronation, he narrowly escaped being cut off by his brother Cyrus; yet, he not only forgave this black attempt, but likewise allowed him to retain his government. Notwithstanding Cyrus had pretended the deepest contrition, this confidence was weak in Artaxerxes, and in a short time he was to feel that it was so. For this hypocrite, having under one pretence or other, assembled a considerable army, and being also joined by a large body of Lacedæmonians, he openly laid claim to the crown of Persia.

Awaked from his delusion, Artaxerxes also levied a powerful army, with which he marched to oppose his brother. They met on the plains of Cunaxa, in the province of Babylon; and though the forces of Artaxerxes were by far the most numerous, yet the superior discipline of the Greeks, in the service of Cyrus, seemed to more than counterba-

lance it. The dispute was long and obstinate, till at length the two brothers engaged each other. In this combat Artaxerxes received two wounds, and was on the point of receiving a finishing blow, when Cyrus fell by a discharge of arrows. This decided the battle in that part of the field where he had commanded: But the Greeks were compleatly victorious in another quarter; and at the close of the day they remained masters of the field. Being ignorant of the fate of Cyrus, they passed the night in anticipating the rewards that had been promised them; but with the light their golden vision was to vanish.

The situation of these Greeks, who were little more than 10,000 in number, was truly deplorable. Cyrus dead, and his army disbanded. Themselves surrounded by enemies, and a march of 2000 miles before them ere they could embark for Greece. Their courage was, however, equal to their danger; and, instead of surrendering, or negotiating, they instantly resolved on a retreat. In the beginning of it, they lost Clearchus their leader;

but Xenophon, the celebrated historian, more than supplied his place. Under his conduct, they surmounted every difficulty; and he reconducted most of them to their native country. This is justly considered as one of the greatest actions of antiquity; the retreat of these 10,000 Grecians, being equalled with the most celebrated victories.

This success of Artaxerxes was clouded by the severest domestic misfortune. Statira, his beautiful and beloved Queen, was snatched from him by poison, and it was discovered to have been administered by his own mother. He for some time confined her, but was at length reconciled to her; and she exercised many cruelties towards those who had been instrumental to the death of her unworthy, yet beloved son, Cyrus. It was, however, weakness in Artaxerxes to allow her the smallest degree of power; and though filial duty may palliate, it can by no means excuse this conduct in the Persian Monarch.

In order to punish the Greek cities of Asia-Minor for having joined Cyrus, Tissa-

phernes was ordered against them. On their part they solicited, and obtained aid from Sparta : and in the first campaign several advantages were gained over the Persians.

Conon the Athenian, celebrated for his naval skill, had been banished his country, and to him was committed the conduct of the Persian fleet. Great exertions were also made to render their forces formidable by land. On the other hand, the Greek cities were equally busy ; and Agefilaus, one of the Spartan Kings, arriving with a fresh body of his countrymen, took the command of the united Greeks. His success was equal to his expectations, for he over-run and plundered the whole province of Lydia. On this, and some accusations from Conon, that his fleet had not been properly supplied, Tiffaphernes was put to death, and the command in that quarter was given to Tithraustes.

Instead of active war, Tithraustes was merely on the defensive ; whilst he took a very effectual means of regaining Asia-Minor. His emissaries were dispatched into Greece, with

plenty of Persian gold, which was applied with so much judgment, that a very great combination took place against the Lacedæmonians. As he had foreseen, the Spartans were thus obliged to abandon their Asiatic allies. And when Agefilaus received his orders to return, he exclaimed, that he was beat by 30,000 archers: This being the name of a gold coin in use amongst the Persians.

When Agefilaus set out for his own country, he entrusted the fleet, which was left behind, to the command of his brother. Conon soon after brought him to action, in which most of the Spartan ships were taken or destroyed. And the consequence was that all the Grecian Asiatic states were once more subjected to the Persian empire.

Conon was now in high estimation at the court of Artaxerxes. Athens had been very lately taken, and dismantled by the Spartans, as I shall elsewhere relate: And this generous, though banished Athenian, undertook the cause of his country. The Spartans were particularly obnoxious to Artaxerxes; and

besides it was better for the Persians to divide Greece, by reinstating the rival of the Lacedæmonians. This was the reasoning used by Conon, and being really just, he was furnished with the means of executing his purpose.

Whilst Conon was thus employed a peace was made between the Persians and Lacedæmonians. One article of the treaty declared, that the contracting parties would guarantee the liberty and independence of every city in Greece; which was very politic in the Persians, as it was likely to prevent any powerful state being formed that might prove dangerous to their empire. But this peace gave Artaxerxes real as well as speculative advantages. For the islands of Clazomenæ and Cyprus, together with all the Greek states in Asia, were confirmed to the Persian monarch.

From these successes Artaxerxes was induced to attempt the reduction of Egypt. In this he did not however succeed, and the close of his reign was entirely employed in domestic dissensions.

He had three legitimate sons, Darius, Ariaspes, and Ochus. Being at enmity with each other, they were already preparing to dispute the crown so soon as their aged father should be no more. To avert so great a misfortune Artaxerxes therefore associated Darius in the government. But this ungrateful and unnatural son, eager to possess the undivided power, plotted against the life of his parent. He was however discovered and put to death, together with some of his illegitimate brethren, who had joined in the conspiracy. Ariaspes and Ochus then began their schemes a-new; and a third competitor appeared in the person of Arsannes, an illegitimate, but at the same time a favourite child of Artaxerxes. On which Ochus, who stopped at nothing, dispatched them both, and his unhappy father did not long survive such complicated misfortunes.

Artaxerxes Ochus, for so he stiled himself, having thus gained the throne in the year 359, began with extirpating all he could find of the blood royal. Most of the principal

Persians likewise fell by his orders; as he by this means supposed to establish that power he had so infamously obtained. Lydia and Phœnicia revolted from this dreadful tyrant; but having subdued the first he marched against the latter. Tennes, at this time king of Sidon, thereupon strengthened himself by an alliance with Nectanebus king of Egypt; from whom he received 4,000 Greek mercenaries under the command of Mentor. But Ochus no sooner appeared in Phœnicia, than this Greek hireling entered into a secret treaty with him. To this Tennes was also brought to accede, betraying his subjects into the power of Ochus. The most cruel barbarities were then inflicted on the chief inhabitants. And the rest of the Sidonians, rather than trust themselves to such a monster, set fire to their city, and perished in the flames.

With the fall of Sidon all opposition from the Phœnicians ended. Tennes, being no longer useful, then received a death from Ochus that he well merited, though not from

the hands of the Persian monarch. As for Mentor and the Greeks they were loaded with favors. And having subdued a revolt in Cyprus, and confirmed his yoke over Judea, Ochus directed his arms against Egypt.

Nectanebus was unable to withstand him; and abandoning his country he found shelter in Ethiopia. The resentment of Ochus was unbounded. He destroyed their temples, insulted their religion, slew one of the sacred bulls with his own hand, and exercised the most dreadful barbarities. He then plundered Egypt of all its riches; and having appointed a governor, with a sufficient force to hold it in subjection, he returned to Persia.

Peace being now established throughout his vast empire, he resigned himself to the most excessive debaucheries. All affairs of state were left to Bagoas his favourite eunuch. But from him he was to receive his earthly punishment. This minister was by birth an Egyptian, and though he had concealed his resentment at the treatment of his country,

he meditated a certain revenge, which he effected by poison in the year 338.

Bagoas, on the death of the king, raised Arogus, one of Ochus's sons to the throne; at the same time destroying all the rest of his late master's posterity. His object at this time was power, through the medium of a weak king, who would quietly submit to his direction. This he thought to have found in Arogus; but finding he was mistaken he removed him also by poison. And in the year 336 Darius Codomannus, a descendant from Darius Nothus, was by his means raised to the vacant crown.

But Darius as little answered his expectations as Arogus. A poisoned cup was therefore prepared for him. This was no more than the new monarch expected. And by his precautions the design of Bagoas was detected before the draught was administered. On which the infamous eunuch was compelled to drink his own infusion, and immediately expired.

It was very soon after this that Alexander

the Great succeeded his father Philip. And all that is necessary in this place as to Greece and Macedon is, that Alexander was appointed generalissimo of the Greek forces, whose object was the reduction of the Persian empire.

In the year 334 Alexander crossed the Hellespont; his whole force consisting of no more than 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse. The first place that Darius's generals made a stand was on the banks of the Granicus. This river was boldly passed by Alexander in the very face of the enemy, when a long and bloody contest ensued. In it the Macedonian king was wounded, and would have lost his life had not Clytus, one of his principal captains, come to his relief. But victory at length declared for the Greeks and Macedonians.

Though the Persians lost 20,000 men in this action, not more than 200 perished on the part of Alexander; from whence we may judge how greatly their discipline excelled that of the Asiatics. Twenty-five of Alex-

ander's life guards being amongst the slain, he caused statues of brass to be erected to their memory. He also sent over orders that all taxes should be remitted to the wives and children of those Macedonians who had fallen: And these acts greatly endeared him to his army. Nor was he less attentive to procure a good name amongst the Asiatics; for except to the Greek mercenaries, he behaved with infinite kindness to all his prisoners. Those Greeks who had fought against him he sent in chains to their respective states. And as Sparta alone had withheld her quota of men, he dedicated 300 of the richest Persian coats of armour to the temple of Minerva at Athens, with this inscription:—That Alexander and all the Grecians, except the Spartans, had taken those spoils from the barbarians of Asia.

The battle of Granicus decided the fate of Asia-Minor: And having got so firm a footing in the Persian empire, he sent back his fleet, thereby cutting off all hopes but those of conquest. To the Greek cities which fell

to him, with the rest of this province, he granted their own laws on their paying the same quotas that the Persians had exacted. But the city of Ephesus was quite exempted, as they were now beginning to rebuild the temple of Diana. It had been burned down the very night that Alexander was born by one Erostratus, who set it on fire for the strange purpose of having his name commemorated. This new temple, which was built by general subscription, and ornamented by several princes, at length however exceeded the old one, and was reckoned one of the seven wonders of the world.

Alexander having wintered in Asia Minor, assembled his forces at the city of Gordium. There he was shewn the knot tied by Gordius, and was at the same time told that universal empire was to belong to him that should undo it. This Alexander attempted in vain; but drawing his sword he cut it in two, declaring he had in this way brought himself within the prediction.

This campaign opened with the reduction

of Cilicia; and he very near lost his life by bathing whilst warm in its river Cydnus. All his physicians had given him over except one; and a letter was put into the hands of Alexander when on the point of drinking a mixture he had ordered. This letter was to inform him that the physician, who had undertaken his cure, was bribed to poison him. But it had so little effect on Alexander, that putting the letter into the possession of the physician, he took off the medicine whilst the doctor was perusing it. And his confidence soon appeared to be well placed by an almost immediate recovery.

Darius had made vast preparations for the defence of his crown. He however knew nothing of war, and instead of waiting in an open country, where all his forces could have acted, he entered the hilly parts in or adjoining to Cilicia. This being just what Alexander wished, he immediately brought on the battle of Issus. A decided victory was the consequence. And though Darius saved himself by flight his camp was taken, together

with his mother, his queen, and several of his children; an immense spoil, at the same time, falling into the hands of the victor.

Darius brought into the field at least 400,000 men; one fourth of which were killed in this battle, whilst Alexander did not lose more than 4 or 500 men. When we attend to the description given by historians, we shall however cease to wonder at this disparity. The Persians had indeed the richest dresses and armour. Gold, silver, and precious stones abounded. But they were much fitter for the pageantry of a court than the exertions or dangers of war: And millions of such soldiers would have in vain attempted to break through the Macedonian phalanx.

The conduct of Alexander was never more praise worthy than in his treatment of the Royal captives. Their attendants were continued, and every gratification to which they had been accustomed. Having once visited the queen, Alexander never again entered her presence. She was uncommonly beautiful,

and he would not trust himself with the contemplation of her charms. It is not improbable that a delicacy to the unfortunate Darius also prevented visits, which might be construed to improper motives. For at this time the Macedonian king was almost as much distinguished by his virtues as his victories. But alas! we shall soon see him become contemptible, and sink beneath his own successes.

Syria was the next country that submitted to the conqueror; and the treasures found in Damascus alone loaded 7,000 beasts of burthen. Darius now made overtures of peace; but Alexander rejected all terms except those of unconditional submission. As a reason for such haughtiness he mentioned the former invasions of Greece. And he likewise accused Darius of instigating the murder of his father Philip.

Of all Phœnicia Tyre alone opposed Alexander. This city originally stood upon the main land; but on Nebuchadnezzar's formerly besieging it, the inhabitants had erected

a new town on an adjacent island, in which they had successfully defied the Babylonish monarch. They thought to do the same by the Macedonian. He however made a causeway that united it to the continent; and with the aid of the shipping belonging to Sidon and other places it was taken by storm. He then sacrificed to the Tyrian Hercules; and having generously continued Azelmichus its king, notwithstanding the vigorous defence he had made, Alexander proceeded to Judea.

Having settled the Jewish affairs, as already related, he set out for Egypt. The city of Gaza lay in his way, and for a short time opposed him. Batis, a eunuch, was its governor, and by his brave defence he is said to have irritated Alexander so much, that holes were bored through his feet when taken in order to fasten him to a chariot: which being done, he was dragged round the walls till he expired. Alexander was a great admirer of Homer, and is supposed to have done this cruel act in imitation of Achilles' treatment of Hector. But some authors deny

the truth of this transaction, and as yet I think he was not capable of it.

The Egyptians held the Persians in so much detestation that they considered Alexander as their deliverer. And the Persian governor had so few forces that he submitted without a blow. The Macedonian king still further confirmed the affections of the Egyptians, by establishing all their superstitions. He also sacrificed to their Bull Apis, and others of their deities. And having celebrated the most magnificent games at Memphis, he proceeded down the Nile: At the mouth of which he laid the foundation of the famous city of Alexandria.

He next visited the temple of Jupiter Ammon in Lybia; which, by means of the deserts he had to pass, was a journey of great difficulty. On his arrival there the oracle saluted him as the son of Jupiter Ammon, declaring his mother Olympias had been impregnated by that deity. By what means the priests were brought to say so is not recorded. But the effect it had on Alexander was to

make him behave, on many occasions, in a manner unworthy the meanest of mankind. And as soon as his mother heard of his deification, she wittily wrote to him not to embroil her in a quarrel with Juno.

Having wintered in Egypt, he set out for Tyre in the beginning of the year 332. Whilst his forces were assembling at that city Darius sent him fresh overtures, offering him a daughter in marriage, with all the countries to the South of the Euphrates for her portion. On hearing these terms Parmenio, one of his generals, exclaimed that he would accept of them: So would I, says Alexander, if I were Parmenio. And he then sent word to Darius that he must submit without terms, or oppose him in the field.

Before any fresh hostilities took place, Statura the wife of Darius died, and Alexander gave her a most magnificent funeral. When this, and the kind treatment of the other royal prisoners was reported to Darius, he forgot all resentment: And generously prayed, that if the period of his own reign was

come, it might be Alexander that succeeded him in the throne of Cyrus.

By the cowardice or treachery of Mazæus, a Persian general, Alexander was suffered to pass both the Euphrates and Tigris without opposition. Darius was posted near a place called Gangamella with at least 1,000,000 of horse and foot. And to engage these the Macedonian had no more than 40,000 infantry, and 7000 cavalry. When Parmenio beheld such fearful odds, he advised his master to attack them by night; but Alexander replied he would not steal a victory. He therefore engaged in the morning, and before the close of day gained that battle which decided the fate of the Persian empire.

Darius behaved with great courage in this action, and in his flight he gave a marked instance of the nobleness of his nature. It was proposed by some of his attendants to break down a bridge which he had crossed, that his retreat might be secure. But when he considered that numbers of his people would thereby lose the opportunity of escaping, he

absolutely forbade it. He however accomplished his present safety, though he was never afterwards able to make head against his conqueror.

Babylon next submitted to Alexander, and the inhabitants of that province were no less pleased at the change than the Egyptians had been before them; for the Persians had destroyed their idols also: And Alexander not only restored them, but sacrificed in person to Belus. In Susa, the capital of Persia, to which the Macedonian king now proceeded, he found treasures that amounted to nine millions of our money. Being thus possessed of ample means to recompense those who had claims on him; he sent several rich presents to the Grecian states: And most liberally rewarded all his followers.

Having added several other parts to his conquests, he directed his course towards Persopolis. This had latterly been a place of residence for the Persian kings, and was the second, if not the first city, of that empire. Hitherto clemency had followed submission;

but though Perſepolis gave no reſiſtance, he allowed his ſoldiers to plunder it. As it was at this time winter, he made it his quarters for that ſeaſon, and gave himſelf up to every kind of exceſs. In one of his drunken ſcenes, Athenais, an Athenian courtezan, ſuggeſted to him, that burning Perſepolis would be a proper return for the deſtruction of Athens by Xerxes. The inebriated Monarch eagerly embraced the propoſal; and ſeizing a lighted torch, his chief officers, who were with him, followed the example. They then ſet fire to the palace, and the flames ſpreading to the adjoining buildings, Perſepolis was in a ſhort time reduced to aſhes.

Darius had taken up his quarters at Ecba-tana in Media, but as ſoon as he knew Alexander to be again in the field, he retreated towards the Caſpian ſea. Beſſus, the governor of Baſtria, accompanied this unfortunate Monarch; and conceiving that he ſhould be able to oppoſe Alexander, he ſeized his unhappy maſter, and uſurped the command of the forces. But Alexander at this time preſ-

fed Bessus so close, that he was forced to leave the litter, in which Darius was carried, behind him. And lest a change of fortune might give his injured King the power of vengeance, he was mortally wounded before he was abandoned.

Polystratus, one of Alexander's Captains, came up with the litter, whilst Darius was yet living. His last breath was spent in sending thanks to Alexander for the generous treatment he had shewn to his family. He also prayed, that the Gods might reward him with the empire of the universe; concluding with giving his hand to Polystratus, at the same time charging him to tell Alexander, he had done so, as a pledge of his good wishes and forgiveness.

Thus fell Darius, and from the accounts of every historian, he seems to have deserved a better fate. The ways of Heaven are impenetrable, nor are we able to account for the different fortunes of mankind. But this we do know, that the happiest and longest life, is nothing when compared to eternity.

And as virtue must be ultimately happy, and vice miserable; the temporary blessings, or misfortunes of this span of existence, are almost equally insignificant.

On Alexander's learning how Darius had closed his life, he burst into tears, at the same time giving orders for his interment, with the usual magnificence. This event happened in the year 331, and either 205 or 206 years after Cyrus began his Empire. And I shall therefore conclude this letter with an account of the laws, religion, and customs of Persia.

The Persian Kings were absolute in the extreme. All who approached them prostrated themselves at their feet. And if a subject was even ordered to put himself to death, he instantly and readily obeyed.—These Monarchs sometimes sat in judgment themselves, and all judges were appointed by them. There were fixed regulations, which were generally adhered to, but then the King was above all law. Even the highest subject might be publicly whipt at his pleasure; and so abject was their slavery, that on such

occasions they returned their Monarch thanks for having remembered them. No person approached the Sovereign without a present; and when he travelled, all the vassals which he passed by brought him such compliments as their station permitted. If any person came to advise the King, he was placed on an ingot of gold, which was his reward, if what he had to say was deemed serviceable. But if otherwise, he was whipt for his intrusion.

The title of the Persian Monarch was that of King of Kings, and the crown was hereditary. The coronation was performed by the Priests; and at it, a mantle, which had belonged to Cyrus, was worn by every King. To eat some figs and turpentine, and to drink a little sour milk, was also a part of this ceremony. The Tiara, or Crown, which was a sort of Turban, was then placed on his head. Its point was erect, whereas those of the subjects were bent. And besides this distinction, the King's Turban, or Tiara, had a purple and white band round it, called the Diadem. A general mourning

took place at the death of every Monarch, and the sacred fires were then let out, during the space of five days. There were particular guards, whose duty it was to give information of all commotions; for which purpose they were scattered over the provinces. The mode of communication was by lighting fires on hills that were appointed for that purpose. And there were also couriers, or posts, established throughout the Empire.

These Monarchs usually resided either at Babylon, Ecbatana, Susa, or Persepolis; in each of which places they had magnificent gardens, parks, and palaces: Every ornament that gold, silver, and precious stones could form, abounded. The water of the river Choaspes, in Media, being deemed particularly good, was carried about in silver vessels to wherever the King went. The wine of Damascus, in Syria—the wheat of Phrygia—the salt of Egypt, and the choice things of every other province, were also always at their table. During their repasts, they were entertained with both vocal and

instrumental music; and the finest women that could be procured, were always ready to administer to their pleasures. That a constant supply of money should be at hand, a chest containing 5000 talents, was at all times placed at the head of the King's bed, and another at its foot with 3000 more: and thus they possessed every means of gratifying their wishes. Yet Xerxes is said to have been so far from being satisfied, as to offer a large reward to the inventor of any new pleasure. Indeed luxury was never carried to greater excess, than by the Persian Monarchs. The whole taxes of a province were sometimes squandered on a queen or concubine. One city furnished ornaments for the hair—another for the neck—a third for her girdle, and so on as to the rest of her apparel.

It was usual for the Kings either to visit the provinces in person, or to send commissioners, at stated times: and when the latter were employed, they were called the King's eyes and ears. It is also said, that every morning an officer reminded the King, that

Oromazes, or God, had placed him on the throne to do good. The ordinary guards of the Persian Kings were 15,000 in number, all of whom were stiled the King's cousins. And besides these, there was the immortal band of 10,000.

A sort of voluntary contribution provided for the exigencies of the state, during the reigns of Cyrus and Cambyfes : but as the Kings were absolute, it is easy to conceive how little free will had to say to such payments. Darius Hyftaspes, however, changed this mode to fixed and certain taxes, from whence he was called the Merchant ; though, in fact, it was infinitely better calculated for the happiness of his people.

The education of children was particularly attended to. This was chiefly committed to the Magi, and the royal progeny were under the care of four of the chief of that order. At the age of seventeen, every Persian was inrolled as a soldier. Parents had absolute power over their childrens lives and fortunes, and no child ever sat in the presence of its

father. A numerous issue was deemed the greatest blessings; and those who had it, were sure to taste of the bounty of their sovereign.

The Persians were temperate in eating, though much addicted to liquor. It was their custom to talk over every thing they intended to do when in their cups; but their final decision was not made till sober. Equals saluted each other with a kiss; whilst inferiors always prostrated themselves to their superiors. The ancient Persians were remarkable for their love of truth. They had also an abhorrence of running in debt: but by the conquests of other nations, they very soon became a very depraved people. They were allowed as many concubines and wives as they thought proper: and they had no idea of incest, sometimes marrying their sisters, and even their mothers. They were, however, extremely jealous, from whence they employed eunuchs; and that infamous practice is supposed to have originated with them. Their chief skill in arms was origi-

nally the bow and arrow, which they used on horseback. Cyrus, however, introduced other weapons, with a closer order of fighting; and chariots, armed with scythes, became common amongst them. Every soldier was clad in armour, and their horses used in war had also a defensive covering. In going out on any expedition, every man put an arrow in an appointed place. And on the return of the forces, those who survived took one out for each, by which means the numbers lost were ascertained. Over their armour they wore purple cloaks, and the King was distinguished by one of white. Their wives, children, and concubines always accompanied them to the field; and though unwieldy companions, the fear of losing them was supposed to add to their courage. From some superstitious ideas, they never marched or engaged by night. In time of action, the King was placed in the centre, and with him the royal banner. This was a spread eagle of gold, which was fixed on the top of a spear. Single combats are said to have been

practised amongst them, but whether it was, or was not used to decide matters of property, is not recorded.

Parricide was not particularized from murder, because the child in such cases was deemed spurious. But what punishment was inflicted for any crime, seems to have been discretionary in those who tried the culprits. It was not usual, however, to punish any first offence with death. And the whole life of the accused was, in every trial, taken into consideration. The accused and the accuser were always placed face to face. And when the person under trial was acquitted, his adversary received the same sentence that he endeavoured to get inflicted. Ingratitude was tried and punished by these people. A mode of putting criminals to death, was the boats, which seems peculiar to the Persians. This was done by sitting two boats to each other, with apertures for the head, hands, and feet. The face was then anointed with honey, to invite wasps and other insects, and in this situation the criminal lay till he ex-

pired. Any person with a leprosy was banished, as they supposed it a punishment for some concealed offence. Walking was confined to the lower orders of Persians, for every person of rank appeared on horses, richly caparisoned, and with arms by their sides. And in this way they paid their visits, and settled every transaction that required being in the open air.

Prior to the times of Darius Hytaspes, there was very little knowledge in Persia. But astronomy, mathematics, and other branches of science, were then introduced by Zoroaster; as was also a system of religion, nearer the truth than that of any other in the heathen world.

Hytaspes, the father of Darius, was appointed master of the Magi. He was himself a man of study, and had visited several distant countries. But he had the virtue and good sense to call to his aid, in the reforming of religion, a man of still greater abilities and knowledge. This was Zerdusht, or Zoroaster. He had visited those places which

were then most celebrated; and as Chaldea was one of the nations where he sought improvement, I think there can be no doubt but he was well acquainted with the works of the Prophet Daniel, and also of the general principles of the Israelites. Thus qualified, his notions were readily received; and the new Magi, or Priests of Persia, under the direction of Hyftaspes, made it the established worship of their country.

Zoroaster said, there was one great and invisible God, called Oromazes. By him the universe was created and governed: But an evil spirit was for a time permitted to have a certain degree of power. During that period, light and darkness, good and evil, were to be in a perpetual state of warfare: till at length light was to be separated from darkness, never more to be confounded. He conceived there was a time when all were happy, and that the present stage of existence was a state of probation, and for the purpose of expiating former offences. Besides Oromazes, there was a secondary deity,

called Mythras, which is also their name for the sun. He was supposed to be constantly engaged in combating the evil spirit, and was at length to overthrow him; by which the world was to be restored to order and happiness. And to Mythras, they gave a wife called Mythra.

Zoroaster also taught rewards and punishments; and that the fourth day after death, the soul of every deceased mortal arrived at a bridge, where two angels weighed the actions of their life. If the good preponderated, they were permitted to pass. But if not, they fell over into a place of misery. He said, that the most acceptable worship to God, was doing good to one another; and that no man, however wicked, need despair, if his repentance was sincere and permanent. Thus far, there is little difference from the Israelitish dispensations; and the omnipotence of God was fully admitted and established.

As to some other institutions of Zoroaster there are great disputes whether they do or not come under the description of idolatry.

There were towers in which a fire deemed sacred was kept constantly burning, except on the death of their kings. But these buildings only held the fire, and no temples were erected in this country, because it was deemed absurd to confine a pure spirit within walls. The priests therefore taught the people in the open air adjacent to their respective towers. And these holy fires are supposed to have been only considered as emblematic of the Deity. To pollute the air by ill smells, or to throw filth into water was forbidden, and it is probable these elements were likewise considered as emblems of the supreme Being. The sun and moon were also esteemed the two great witnesses of God. When they prayed by day they therefore turned their face to the sun, and by night the same posture was observed towards the moon. Upon the whole I am inclined to think that these forms were not intended to divide or diminish the worship and glory of the true and only God.

It is said that Zoroaster very particularly instructed the magi as to the coming of

Christ. He also informed them that at the time of his birth they should see a star in which there would be the figure of a virgin. And some of them were ordered to go with presents to the child as soon as this signal should appear. If this be a fact there can be little doubt but it was from Persia that the wise men of the East came to worship the new born king of the Jews, as recorded in the New Testament.

The priests or magi were of three classes. The lowest order attended parochial duty. The second presided over particular districts. And the third was the archimagus, or head of all. They were extremely plain in their garb, and abstemious in their mode of living, refraining from every thing that had ever possessed life. This was in consequence of their believing that the souls of men had a progress through the bodies of animals. And in another place we shall find Pythagoras, instructing the Greeks and Italians in the same opinion.

From the times of Darius Hystaspes to the

destruction of the Persian empire these tenets were propagated through its provinces, whilst the idols and temples were in most places destroyed. But under Alexander every nation subjected by him was allowed to return to their own idolatries. And the Persian religion was from thenceforth confined within its own peculiar boundary. Of Egypt and the countries of Asia there is nothing memorable that has not fallen in with the Persian empire. And as Cyrene and Carthage will come in better towards the close of this division of history, I shall in my next proceed to Greece and Macedon.

SECOND LETTER.

AMONG the states of Greece, Athens and Sparta had risen to the greatest consequence: And with their transactions, whatever is material as to the rest, will naturally fall in. Pisistratus, the tyrant of Athens, expired about the year 517, transmitting the supreme power to his sons Hipparchus and Hippias. The first, in a few years, brought himself to a violent death, by forcing a young man, named Harmodius, to his unnatural lusts. He was remarkably handsome, and, according to the infamous practice of the Greeks, was beloved by another Athenian, called Aristogiton. These two youths therefore revenged themselves, by assassinating Hipparchus, but Hippias escaping, put them to death. Their execution, however, roused the people of Athens, who expelled the surviving son of Pisistratus, and erected statues to Harmodius and Aristogiton, as martyrs in the cause of liberty. Much about this time, Athens was

visited with a plague, and Epimenedes, a Philosopher, raised an altar to the unknown God, in order to avert it.

Several petty contests had taken place amongst the different states of Greece, prior to the attacks made by the Persians. These powerful invaders, however, for a time suppressed all internal broils. Yet in the action of Marathon, the only aid which the Athenians obtained, was 1000 men from the city of Platæa. These, with 9000 from Athens, made up the whole force that won that celebrated battle. To command it, ten Generals were appointed, who should act in daily rotation as Generalissimo. They differed much as to the mode of opposing the enemy; till at length Miltiades, who was one of them, carried his opinion. This was to meet the Persians in the open field. Aristides, another of their Generals, then conceived, that it would be more conducive to the public good, to let Miltiades have the sole power. As soon as his day came, he therefore surrendered to him his command, which exam-

ple being followed by the rest, Miltiades had the entire management of what he had proposed. This probably insured the success which followed at Marathon. And the transaction was commemorated, by a picture representing the engagement, with Miltiades at the head of his brother Generals: that honour being deemed an ample reward for this important victory.

During the respite which Athens obtained by this overthrow of the Persians, Miltiades went on an expedition against the island of Paros. It was planned by himself, and proving unsuccessful, a fine of fifty talents was imposed on him, by his ungrateful countrymen. Soon after which he died of the wounds he had received in this unfortunate undertaking.

On the disgrace and death of Miltiades, Aristides and Themistocles became the greatest men at Athens. The first was remarkable for his wisdom and integrity, and had the glorious appellation of Just. He was beloved by the principal citizens; but his man-

ners were ungracious, and he had neither the art nor desire of pleasing the multitude. On the other hand, Themistocles, who had also great abilities, was possessed of the most insinuating manners. These, without half the integrity of his rival, soon rendered him the favourite of the people; and Aristides was banished by the Ostracism. On that occasion, it is said, a citizen who could not write, and who was also ignorant of the person of Aristides, applied to him to put his name upon the shell. He did so, but at the same time asked, What offence Aristides had given? To this the citizen replied, He knew none, but he was tired of always hearing him spoke of, with the title of Just.

When Xerxes ascended the Persian throne, Themistocles was, in fact, the ruler of Athens. He therefore effectually exerted himself in increasing its navy, and to it you have seen them owe their safety. By him principally the Greek states were also brought to unite for their general preservation. In the battle of Salamis, Aristides, who had

been recalled, likewise distinguished himself. But Themistocles received, and deserved the greatest applause. And on entering the Olympic Games, the compliments paid him were so uncommon, that he exclaimed, he was recompensed even beyond his desires.

Whilst the Greeks were thus gaining the highest honors by arms, they were also increasing in philosophic and poetic fame. Besides Epimenides, Anaximander, the disciple of Thales, at this time flourished; and was improving on the knowledge of his master. Heraclius, another Greek Philosopher, was also celebrated. And in poetry, Pindar, the Theban, and soon after him, Æschilus, the first composer of tragedies, were particularly distinguished.

By the exertions of Themistocles, not only Athens, but its port of Piræus, was strongly fortified. This, and all his former services, could not however give stability to his popularity. He was accused of pride, ostentation, and ambition, and in his turn experienced the Ostracism: On which he took shelter in

the Persian court; where you have seen him prefer a voluntary death, rather than fight against his ungrateful country.

In his public acts, the worst thing done by Themistocles, was procuring the banishment of Aristides: and he also meditated a piece of treachery, to aggrandize his country, which no man of real principle could ever have entertained. After the battle of Salamis, he would have destroyed all the ships of the confederate Greeks, except those of the Athenians, had not Aristides interposed. For, at his instigation, though such a measure would have undoubtedly given Athens a superiority by sea, its inhabitants rejected an action that must have been attended with so much loss of honor. From these circumstances, I may with safety pronounce; that though Themistocles was a great, yet he was also a very mixed character. But he certainly did not merit the ill treatment which he received from Athens.

Aristides was now raised to the exalted station of commanding the united Greeks.

This happened on the dismissal of Pausanias; who, by his haughty and overbearing conduct, had highly offended the allies. It was also discovered, that he had been intriguing with the Persians to betray his country; on which he took sanctuary in the temple of Minerva at Sparta. Here he was starved to death; his own mother pointing out how he might perish, without polluting the temple. For she silently brought a tile and laid it at the door, which example being followed, the entrance was so barricaded, as to render his escape impossible.

As Generalissimo, it was the duty of Aristides to fix the ships, men, and money, which every state should furnish. This he did with so much equity, that it was called the happy lot or arrangement for Greece. He had also the almost singular good fortune, to retain the esteem of his countrymen to the last. And Plato afterwards said of him, that he studied to fill Athens with virtue. But even Aristides, is said to have been addicted to the unnatural lust for boys. What can

one say of a people, where this abominable vice was not even discountenanced? For my own part, when I find such a man as Alcibiades charged with it, I lament his living in those days. And I regret, that his otherwise unblemished name, should be contaminated by the infamous practice of his country.

If you wish for every minute as to the lives of the most celebrated Greeks and Romans, you will find them in the works of Plutarch, which are well worthy of your perusal; for it would quite exceed the bounds I prescribe to myself, to recite all the particulars of those distinguished characters.

Cimon, the son of Miltiades, was the next leader of Athens. He began his career by taking several settlements in Thrace, which till then had belonged to the Persians. He then relieved the seas from a nest of pirates, which inhabited the island of Scyros, obliging them to fly from that country. And he destroyed so many Persian ships, and possessed himself of so much plunder, that Artaxerxes was glad to conclude the peace already

recited; so honourable to the Greeks, and at the same time so humiliating to the Persian Monarch.

Sophocles and Eurypides, two dramatic writers, now flourished in Greece, and Æschylus was still alive. But a prize given to Sophocles, where a tragedy of his and Æschylus's was produced, so affected the old Poet, that he retired to Sicily, and soon after expired. These tragedies were exhibited at games lately instituted to the memory of Theseus. For Cimon, by the direction of an oracle, had brought his bones from Scyros, after expelling the pirates. And they were not only received with the highest veneration, but divine honors were now paid to this ancient King of Athens.

Of all men Cimon seemed to be secure of the affections of his countrymen. Added to the great services he had performed, his mode of private life was peculiarly endearing. His riches were immense, but his expenditures were suitable. He both strengthened and ornamented Athens, at his own expence.

His extensive gardens and fields were open to every citizen, who might also use their product, as if it had been their own. His table was always plentifully covered, and his numerous guests were entertained with the most unbounded hospitality. Yet neither his successes, nor good qualities, could secure the ever fickle people. And Pericles, the son of Xanthippus, an eminent Athenian, was soon to rise upon his ruins.

Sparta being nearly destroyed by an earthquake, the Helotes, with what remained of the Messenians, seized that opportunity of revolting. In this dilemma, the Lacedæmonians applied to Athens for assistance, which was obtained by the influence of Cimon, though with difficulty. But in the course of this war with the Helotes, Sparta greatly offended Athens. The resentment of the populace was then artfully turned by Pericles to Cimon, who had been so much the friend of Lacedæmonia; which ended in his being driven from his country by the Ostracism.

Several petty wars took place with Sparta and other states, which were of little consequence; except that Pericles made them a means of favouring the Democracy. To the people he looked, and therefore he sought to humble the nobles. For this purpose he brought the court of Areopagus into contempt; all considerable causes being henceforth referred to the citizens at large. These measures greatly offended the principal Athenians. They therefore anxiously sought the restoration of Cimon; causing his generosity and great achievements to resound throughout Athens. And Pericles perceiving that he could not prevent his return, most artfully took the credit of it, by proposing his recall.

The first act of Cimon was, to make peace with Sparta and her allies. It had ever been his object, to direct the combined forces of Greece against the Persians; and perhaps it was the only way of keeping them in friendship with each other. He therefore again set sail with a powerful ar-

mament for the coasts of Asia. There he made many successful descents, reaping both honor and profit; but he at length died, either a natural death, or of his wounds, whilst he was besieging Cyzicum, in the island of Cyprus; and his remains were carried to Athens, where they received all possible honors.

Cimon in his youth was rather stupid; though his manhood produced an able statesman, orator, soldier, and navigator. He was a true friend to the constitution of Athens; and though he gained the affections of the people by his liberality, he uniformly opposed their encroachments. In his days, Persian gold was become plenty in Greece, and corruption was in fashion; yet the hands of Cimon were never contaminated by bribes. A love of wine and women were his greatest faults: the first however, was so blended with hospitality, as almost to become a virtue; whilst the latter, was in a comparative degree amiable, when compared to the lusts of others. In short, there

was much to love and little to hate in his character; and Cimon, was excelled by very few indeed amongst the Grecians.

Cimon had pleased the Athenians, by laying out his own private fortune; but Pericles had the art to secure their affections by the expenditure of the public money. Immense works were carried on; and the people employed, being chiefly nominated by means of Pericles, necessarily became his followers. He likewise procured payment to the people for their attending state affairs, at the same time feasting and entertaining them out of the public treasury. Being successful in several wars, it added to his popularity; and the people in every sense considered him, as their patron and protector.

Aspasia, a courtesan, from the city of Miletus in Asia Minor, had settled at Athens. She was equally remarkable for her wit, learning, beauty, and looseness of life; and so great were her charms in conversation, that Socrates himself was delight-

ed with them. Pericles was so sensible of all these powers, that he took her as his mistress, putting away his wife in order to receive her. Her ascendancy at length rose to such a height, that he consulted her on every thing, and it was this woman that gave rise to the Samian war.

Miletus, the native city of Aspasia, had quarrelled with the island of Samos. Pericles therefore engaged the Athenians to take part with Miletus; and to please his mistress, he conducted the armament in person. After various successes, he entirely subdued the Samians; levelled their chief city to the ground; and having imposed a heavy fine, returned in triumph to Athens. He then delivered an oration in honour of those who had fallen; which so exquisitely touched the feelings of his audience, as to draw forth the highest applause; and this pathetic funeral composition is ascribed to Aspasia.

Pericles, from this time, assumed a superiority in his deportment, that was very displeasing to the people; and the nobles,

who hated him, taking the advantage of this change, resolved to sap his credit: beginning by an attack upon those with whom he was particularly connected.

Phidias, the most celebrated statuary at Athens, came under this description. He was therefore accused of embezzling part of the gold which was given him to cover a statue to Minerva; and also of representing himself and Pericles, by some of the figures engraven on her shield. Of the first charge he was acquitted, but found guilty of the latter; and he was then thrown into prison, where he shortly died, as is supposed by poison. The famous statue to Jupiter, in the temple at Olympia, was also executed by this artist; and from its great size, and exquisite workmanship, it was afterwards deemed one of the seven wonders of the world.

Aspasia was next attacked by Hermippus, a comic Poet. He accused her of impiety, and also of receiving into her house, women above the rank of slaves, who ad-

ministered to the pleasures of Pericles. Pericles on this occasion defended her with all his eloquence; and with difficulty obtained her acquittal. Anaxagoras, the tutor of Pericles, and at this time a celebrated Philosopher, was the next to stand his trial. The accusation made against him was, his asserting, that the sun, moon, and stars, were material bodies, and not deities. He also said that the universe owed its construction neither to chance nor necessity; but to a pure unmixed mind, that reduced all things to order. Such doctrines were so opposite to the idolatries of Athens, that no doubt remained of his condemnation; and therefore, by the aid of Pericles, he saved himself by flight.

Pericles in his own person, as might well be expected, was now to stand the brunt of his enemies. The sums which every Grecian state contributed were lodged in Delos; as it was never attacked, on account of its being deemed particularly holy. But Pericles, as commanding the

united fleets of Greece drew the whole sum from thence to Athens. This he justified by saying that very few ships were furnished except by the Athenians. And therefore having in fact defended Greece against the Persians, that money of right belonged to them. Whilst Pericles was in the height of popularity it would have been in vain to have looked for an account. But now a decree was obtained at the instigation of Sparta and other states, that Pericles should show the manner of its expenditure.

This was a dreadful stroke to this hitherto successful Athenian. He had not indeed aggrandized his private fortune, but he had made that fund subservient to his ambition: For a considerable part of it had gone to the ornamenting of Athens, and to the payment and entertainment of the people. However such an application of the public money of Greece could by no means bear an investigation. And his ruin could only be prevented by diverting the Athenians from this enquiry. At this critical juncture the Megareans slew

an Athenian herald. This very justly irritated his countrymen, and Pericles, heightening the offence with all his eloquence, obtained a declaration of war. Megara being the ally of Sparta, a breach with that state was also the consequence. And Pericles being the only general the Athenians could confide in, his services were indispensable: By which means a total end was put to all enquiry as to the expenditure of the public money.

This war commenced in the year 431, involving in it almost every nation of Greece. All the Peloponnesian kingdoms were on the side of Megara, as were also the Thebans, and the people of the island of Ægina, besides some inferior states. Most of the islands of the Archipelago, together with the Greeks of Asia Minor, sided with Athens. And to prevent all accommodation the Persian emissaries in Greece were furnished with plenty of gold, which they judiciously distributed. Nor did this conflict, which is called the first Peloponnesian war, finally end till 27 years after its commencement.

The great strength of Athens was her navy. And being weak in land forces, the Spartans and their allies began the attack by entering Attica with a powerful army. Pericles, with great judgment, prevailed on the Athenians to abandon the open country and retire within the walls of their capital. He at the same time dispatched the fleet to ravage the coasts of Peloponnesus. This, as he had foreseen, obliged the enemy to withdraw their forces for the protection of their own countries. But human wisdom cannot secure the success of its designs. A plague breaking out in Athens swept off numbers; and being ascribed to the multitudes that had crowded into the city, Pericles was loaded with reproach. The same fatal disease had also spread into the army with which he had undertaken the siege of the city of Epidaurus. And being on that account obliged to abandon it, the rage of the populace became excessive. They deprived him of the command, fined him to a large amount, and he was within three votes of suffering death.

The Athenians now appointed other generals; all of whom proving unsuccessful, Pericles was reinstated in their favor. But after losing all his legitimate children, and several of his nearest friends by the plague, he was seized with it also. And before he could make any new exertions, it carried him off in the third year of the Peloponnesian war.

Under Pericles Athens rose to its summit in the polite arts. Music and poetry flourished, and statues of exquisite workmanship appeared without number. Various edifices were erected on the most perfect plans of architecture. And a temple, which was dedicated to Minerva, cost one thousand talents. But amidst these splendid improvements Pericles laid the foundation of his country's ruin. The expensive feasts and entertainments, which were paid for from the public treasury, gave the people such a taste for pleasure as no situation, however dangerous, could afterwards eradicate. And though Athens under his administration became the noblest and most polished city of the world,

the basis of its liberty was at the same period shook to its foundation.

Pericles was eloquent, and had a perfect command of his temper. He was also a brave and successful general; and as he gratified the people in every thing, it is no wonder that they gave him the surname of Olympius. He was likewise of a merciful temper, consoling himself in his last moments with the reflection that no Athenian had ever put on mourning through his means: And his knowledge of the fine arts, with his encouragement of them, though not positive virtues, were at least very pleasing qualifications. These are the good points of this great man's character. His opposite ones arose from a parsimonious disposition, in regard to his private connexions: From an improper love of women: And from an unbounded ambition. Anaxagoras his tutor suffered extreme poverty by his neglect; and his own children likewise complained of his penury. We find him putting away his wife for a courtesan, whilst at the same time he made this favou-

rite mistress procure others for his pleasures. He raised himself to power by unwarrantable expenditures, and by the most unconstitutional attacks upon the aristocratic part of the Athenian government. In so mixed a character one is at a loss to draw a conclusion. And I shall only add that whilst I admire the virtues I detest the vices of Pericles.

Thucydides the historian, and Hippocrates the celebrated physician, were cotemporary with Pericles at Athens. Democritus a Grecian philosopher likewise flourished about this time. And the great Socrates was beginning to be distinguished amongst his countrymen.

For six or seven years after the death of Pericles there was no statesman or general that made himself very conspicuous in Greece. During this period the Peloponnesian war went on with various success. And at length Nicias the Athenian general brought about a truce for fifty years.

This cessation of arms did not long continue. A fresh difference arose between Athens and Sparta, which Nicias would have

amicably settled, but for the intrigues of Alcibiades. Peace was ill suited to the rising ambition of the latter. And at his instigation the war recommenced in the year 418.

Alcibiades was a young Athenian of noble birth, great talents, and a very superior fortune. He had received his first instructions from Pericles his near relation; and to a handsome face, and agreeable person, he added a commanding eloquence. But with all these advantages he was vicious by nature; and Timon a misanthrope, who at this time lived at Athens, well predicted the consequences of his influence. For seeing him one day mislead a public assembly, Timon, with a malicious tone, bade him go on and prosper, as by that means he would ruin the crowd that then attended him.

Party now ran extremely high between Nicias and Alcibiades, each endeavouring to get rid of the other by the ostracism. Hyperbolus, a very impudent, forward, vile fellow, taking advantage of their quarrel, attempted to raise himself to power. But this united

the two first, and by their influence the ostracism passed upon the latter. Hitherto great men only had been driven from their country by this mode of condemnation. And the Athenians when they reflected on the contemptible character of Hyperbolus, were so much displeased at his being thus banished, that the ostracism was never more repeated.

In this new war the Athenians were joined by the Argives, Eleans, and Mantineans, who had been hitherto on the side of Sparta. But notwithstanding this accession Athens was at first unsuccessful. At length Alcibiades was raised to the chief command, and was every where victorious. Elated by his great successes his countrymen set no bounds to their ambition. They even made a decree, and swore to it, that they would consider wheat, barley, vines, and olives as the only termination of their empire. Thereby meaning that they would subdue all those countries in which these articles were the produce.

In such a temper they were not likely to refuse any overture that might lead to con-

quest: And some cities in Sicily that had their origin from Athens, now applied for succour. Nicias opposed this foreign expedition with all his ability. But Alcibiades as warmly espoused the other side of the question, and succeeded. A powerful armament was decreed by the assembled people; and in the warmth of their imagination, they not only considered Sicily, but also Carthage and Italy, as having already yielded to their arms.

Though Nicias to the last opposed this undertaking, yet he was one of those appointed to conduct it; and with him were joined Alcibiades and Lamarchus. Many signs are said to have happened, which were deemed unfavourable to this expedition. Meton, a celebrated diviner, declared, it would prove unfortunate. And the great Socrates, who now flourished at Athens, predicted its catastrophe.

Syracuse was the first object of this armament, and the Spartans dispatched a body of

men, under Gylippus, to counteract it. The Athenians then reinforced their troops in this quarter. But the event was, the total loss of both their fleet and army.

Though Alcibiades had promoted this expedition, and was appointed one of its conductors, he never acted in Sicily. For he had scarcely sailed for that island, till an order was sent after him to return to Athens. There were in that city statues to Mercury, set up before private houses and public edifices, which were deemed peculiarly holy. All these images, except one, had been lately mutilated, during the course of a single night: And Alcibiades had scarcely departed, till he was accused of having done it in a drunken frolic. It was also alledged by his enemies, that he had sported with the most sacred mysteries of the gods: And he was recalled in order to stand his trial for these impieties. But though the people had overlooked his debaucheries, Alcibiades dreaded the effects of their superstition. And instead of revisiting his native country, he instantly

fled to Sparta; where he offered his services against Athens, and was most cordially entertained.

Though dress and luxury were highly pleasing to Alcibiades, he made them yield to his ambition. He rendered himself popular among the Spartans, by conforming to the severest of their manners; and he became the chief director of all their warlike enterprises. In this the Lacedæmonians acted wisely, because he best knew where Athens was vulnerable. Agis, one of the Spartan Kings, accordingly beat them by land, and fortified a place called Decælea, even in the territories of Attica. And at the same time Alcibiades not only proved victorious by sea, but also detached from their interest a number of their allies. To add to these misfortunes, the Athenians, at this time, received an account of their total overthrow in Sicily: on which their wild ideas of conquest, were succeeded by those of the deepest despair.

Fortunately for Athens, an irreconcilable animosity had taken place between Agis and

Alcibiades. The latter had debauched the wife of the former, and even boasted of his crime. When this was made known to Agis, he sent private orders to have Alcibiades assassinated. But the Athenian escaped it, though narrowly; and took shelter with Tissaphernes, the Persian governor of Lydia. Here he endeavoured to gain the good will of his countrymen, by detaching the Persians from the interests of Sparta; and in some degree succeeded.

During the consternation which prevailed at Athens, on the news of their complicated misfortunes, one of their principal citizens, named Pisander, totally subverted the democracy. The right of voting was then confined to 5000 citizens, who elected five annual magistrates, called Prytanes. These Prytanes then named 100 persons, each of whom appointed three others, and those 400 constituted a senate, in which the supreme power was veiled.

In the hour of danger this had been quietly submitted to by the people; but they still

retained their love of power. The same sentiments were entertained by the fleet and army, then assembled at Samos : and a leader alone was wanting to call them into action. The friends of Alcibiades did not omit so favourable an opportunity ; but by their judicious management, the troops declared him their commander. On this, Pisander was forced to negotiate with Alcibiades, and a compromise took place. The right of voting was continued in the 5000, to the exclusion of the lower order ; and the Prytanes were also to remain, but the senate was entirely abolished.

This restoration of Alcibiades happened in the 21st year of the Peloponnesian war ; and an immediate turn took place in their affairs. By his successes, and by his affecting to be religious, Alcibiades regained the good opinion of the people. And in a short time they restored him to all his former honors.

The Persians, on seeing this favourable change for Athens, threw their aid again to Sparta. On this, Alcibiades attacked them

also with success, proving victorious on many occasions, and amassing a prodigious spoil. On his return to Athens, he, therefore, lightened the public taxes out of his own acquisitions. And by other liberal acts, his popularity was raised so high, that the Athenians decreed him to be the sole commander of their fleets and armies.

Sparta, at this period, would have concluded a peace on any terms: but the elated Athenians, talked of nothing less than the extirpation of their enemies. The Lacedæmonians were, therefore, forced to the utmost exertions. Hitherto the Persians had rather assisted underhand than openly; and they had changed sides, so as to keep up a balance between the contending parties. But Cyrus, the son of Darius Nothus, who was now the governor of Asia-Minor, declared himself decidedly for Sparta. And Lysander, the Lacedæmonian Admiral, with his aid, and that of the other allies, was able to face the Athenians on the ocean. Alcibiades was also at the head of a great armament. But

being obliged to leave it under the command of Antiochus, for a few days, it was entirely defeated, and almost every ship was taken or destroyed. This was owing to the disobedience and ambition of Antiochus, who went in pursuit of Lyfander, notwithstanding the most positive injunctions to the contrary. For Alcibiades had ordered him to avoid the enemy, and on no account to engage till his return.

At Athens, the first effect of this disaster was the most violent resentment to Alcibiades. He was instantly deprived of all his offices and honors, and ten Generals were appointed to succeed him. As for Alcibiades himself, he retired to Thrace, with the few ships he had left. There he strongly fortified himself, amassing great riches, by the plunder of the neighbouring territories; but he never again revisited his native country.

The ten commanders were at first unsuccessful, and Conon, who was one of them, being separated from the rest, was blocked up in the port of Mitylene. His nine col-

leagues having got a reinforcement, however, soon returned to his relief. And the Spartans, under Callicratides, were in their turn defeated; losing seventy ships, whilst nineteen only were sunk on the part of the Athenians.

A very strange prosecution was now commenced against the nine officers, who had thus rescued Conon. They were accused of suffering the crews of the nineteen ships, which were sunk, to perish. It was in vain that they pleaded the heat of action, and that their exertions against the enemy rendered it impossible. It was also in vain that Socrates, one of the Prytanes, shewed the injustice of their condemnation; for six of them were sentenced and executed. This being chiefly owing to the malice of Alcibiades's party; when the blind fury of the mistaken multitude was over, they mourned for the victims they had made. And the accusers of these unfortunate commanders were then slaughtered, without trial or mercy, wherever they were met with.

The four commanders who survived, were

dispatched in quest of the Spartan fleet. It was inferior in number, on which account Lysander, who commanded it, carefully avoided an engagement, taking shelter in the port of Lampsaechus. Not daring to attack him in that harbour, the Athenians took post at Agmos Patmos, to watch his motions. They never once supposed that the Spartans would venture to attack them; and their men were therefore frequently suffered to go on shore. But Lysander carefully informed himself of their situation, and coming suddenly upon them, nine ships, of all their numerous fleet, alone escaped. With eight of these Conon retired to Cyprus, rather than meet the fury of his countrymen; and the ninth conveyed the dreadful tidings to Athens.

Before the Athenians could in any degree recover this terrible misfortune, Agis entered Attica with a Spartan army, whilst Lysander appeared off their harbour. They had no alternative, and therefore submitted on the following terms: That their port and walls should be destroyed. Their govern-

ment changed to an Oligarchy, which Sparta should nominate. Athens to have always a Lacedæmonian garrison; and never to have more than twelve ships in its service. Thus ended the first Peloponnesian war, either in the year 405 or 404; and much about the same time that Artaxerxes Mnemon succeeded to the throne of Persia.

Lyfander had taken immense wealth in these successes, but the Spartans decreed, that it, and all that should at any time be thus acquired, must go into the public treasury. This was however often evaded, and from thenceforth the Lacedæmonians were nearly as venal as any of their neighbours.

The death of Alcibiades happened shortly after the Spartans conquered Athens. It took place at a village in Phrygia, where he had retired with his wealth and a favorite mistress. His house there was set on fire by a number of assassins; and on his escaping from the flames, they flew him by missile weapons, not daring to meet him hand to hand. This murder is differently accounted

for. Some say it was committed by order of the friends of a noble lady, whom he had debauched; others impute it to the Oligarchy at Athens, as they did not think their power permanent, whilst the people had such a leader to apply to.

In Alcibiades, we behold a striking instance, how every natural qualification may be perverted. To gratify his own ambition, he by his eloquence plunged Athens into the renewal of that war, which ended in its destruction. His high birth and large fortune led him to the most guilty excesses, and to the most daring breaches of decency and good order. His courage was exerted against his native country, because his vices had justly brought upon him their resentment. And the beauty of his face and person, were employed in the basest ingratitude; for by their means, he seduced the wife of that King, in whose court he had taken refuge. Thus, from a want of virtue, his birth, his riches, his personal advantages, his courage, and his abilities, became his greatest misfortunes;

and instead of leaving a great and respectable name behind him, the lightest term we can give, is that of despicable, to his character.

The Oligarchy established at Athens, consisted of thirty Athenians, who were in the interest, as well as the power of Sparta. They turned out such dreadful tyrants, that more blood was shed by them, than had been spilt in the late unfortunate war. Socrates in vain attempted to prevent such cruelties, and narrowly escaped himself. And when the Athenians would have left their country, rather than submit to such a government, Sparta declared, that no state should receive them with impunity. Argos and Thebes however despised such threats, and numbers fled to both. Amongst these, Thrasybulus was first in courage and abilities; he therefore put himself at the head of an inconsiderable body of fugitive Athenians. With them he seized a place of strength in Attica, named Phyla; and being joined by many more, he possessed himself of the Piræus. Here he began to restore the fortifications, the tyrants

endeavouring, without effect, to dispossess him; and Critias, the bloodiest of them all, was slain in the attempt.

With such a support at hand, the people of Athens now ventured to expel the tyrants, who thereupon surprised the city of Eleusine, and put its inhabitants to death. From it, they sent to Sparta for aid, and Pausanias, one of its Kings, was immediately ordered into Attica. Thrasybulus however, found means to get him over to his interest, and the Democracy was then restored. An act of oblivion at the same time passing, as to the tyrants and their followers.

This conduct in Pausanias was very ill received at Sparta; nor would Thrasybulus have been able to stand his ground, but that the Lacedæmonians were now attacked by different enemies. This was owing to the Persian gold, which Artaxerxes Mnemon caused to be judiciously distributed, in order to force the Spartans to evacuate Asia Minor. The Thebans, who first took the

field, were soon strengthened by a body of Athenians. They were however beat by the Spartans, and for the present compelled to retire.

Agefilas, the other Spartan King, was now recalled from Asia Minor, and on his arrival in Peloponnesus, he took the command of their army. But though he gained several victories over the Greeks, who had been stirred up against his country, the loss of the fleet on the coast of Asia Minor, forced the Lacedæmonians, to make that humiliating peace with the Persians which I have before related, and which was called the peace of Antalcidas, he being the person who ratified it on the part of Sparta.

It was much about this period, that the great Socrates, was condemned by the Athenians. He publicly taught the noblest truths of natural religion, and was resorted to by the most celebrated youth of those days. But his life and precepts were a severe satyr on the vices which then prevailed at

Athens; and the enemies he thereby created, had both the will and power to destroy him.

The first step they took to undermine him with the people was, to expose him on the stage in a ludicrous character. For this purpose, they employed Aristophanes, a most licentious comic poet; and he did it so effectually, as to set the theatre in a roar of laughter. Socrates himself was present, and bore it with his accustomed philosophy, saying, he considered himself, on this occasion, as giving a feast to the people. There is nothing so venerable, but it may be placed in a ridiculous point of view; and his ignorant countrymen began to despise the man they had mocked; though that very mockery had its origin in their own folly and injustice.

Amongst other glorious doctrines, this admirable heathen boldly asserted, that there was one great and invisible God, who created and governed the universe; and who would reward and punish after death. He there-

fore enjoined the conquest of our passions, and the necessity of a virtuous life. But this was considered as blasphemy against the established superstitions; and two young men, remarkable for their vices, became his accusers. Socrates supported his opinions with vast abilities, and concluded his defence with telling the assembled citizens, that he was out of their power. To fear death, said this philosopher, is absurd, because no man knoweth what happens after it; and therefore it may be the road to the greatest felicity. But the justice of his reasoning had no effect upon the multitude, and their sentence was, that he should die.

It was thirty days from his condemnation, before he was executed. This was owing to the annual voyage to Delos, instituted by Theseus, being at this time performing; during which no person could be put to death. He might have saved his life by paying a large fine, or by flight: but on these heads he resisted every solicitation, alleging that either would look like guilt.

When the day arrived on which he was to take the hemlock, he conversed with Plato, Crito, and other friends and disciples, with the greatest cheerfulness and composure; after which he drank off the poison, and calmly submitted to his fate.

It is said that Socrates had a familiar spirit attending him, which gave him a presentiment of all that was to happen to himself, and also as to several other things that regarded futurity. Amongst other anecdotes that relate to him, that of his wife Xantippe is worthy our notice. She was uncommonly ill tempered, and his friends wondered how he could put up with it. Socrates replied, that a wise man could turn every thing to his advantage: at the same time declaring, that the patience she had obliged him to exercise, gave him that serenity for which he was so remarkable. Socrates lived to a very advanced age, and not long before his death a Physicist, on examining his face, pronounced him to be both lustful and passionate. The man, on this, was

treated with great contempt, till Socrates declared, he had really been so, but that he had corrected those vices by reason and resolution. Such a conquest is more glorious, than all that ever Alexander performed. The noblest empire, is that which holds the passions in subjection; and I would rather be the imitator of Socrates than of all the heroes of antiquity.

Conon having brought about the peace of Antalcidas, by his great successes, was in high favour with the Persian monarch; he therefore obtained leave to return to Athens; and for political purposes, he had orders to restore it to its former state. In doing this, he expended a part of his private fortune, as well as those sums furnished by Persia; and the fortifications of that city and port, were rendered as formidable as ever. By some, Conon is said to have died a natural death: whilst others alledge, he was cut off at the court of Artaxerxes, for having done too much to aggrandise his native city.

Not long after the peace with Persia Thebes was surprised by the Spartans: And abolishing the democracy, they fixed an oligarchy on its ruins. But Epaminondas and Pelopidas, two celebrated Thebans, with the aid of Athens removed this yoke, restoring the old constitution. Several battles both by sea and land then followed between these contending parties; after which peace was concluded through the interference of the Persian monarch, who at this time wanted to hire some part of the Greek forces for the reduction of his own revolted provinces.

But Greece was seldom long at peace; and for a wonder, the states of Sparta and Athens were on the same side in a new war that now commenced. The Thebans and Eleans were their opponents, under the command of Epaminondas; and the next in authority to him was Pelopidas, who was at the head of 300 Theban youth, distinguished by the name of the sacred band. With only six thousand men, Epaminondas ventured to engage 25,000 of the enemy at a place called Leuctra; and

having defeated them, he pushed the war into the country of Lacedæmonia. With some reinforcements he now received, Epaminondas thought himself so formidable as to appear before Sparta. This was the first time, since the laws of Lycurgus, that that city was ever endangered; and having no walls, its inhabitants were seized with the utmost consternation. Agefilæus however defended it with so much skill, that Epaminondas was forced to retire. He however ravaged all its territories, and rebuilding Ithome the capital of Messene, restored it to the remnant of that unfortunate people: Not long after which a peace was concluded that was very satisfactory to the Thebans and their allies.

There were at this time great dissensions in the kingdom of Macedon; and Thebes being applied to interposed its good offices. By their means the competitors for the crown were brought to terms, and Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, was sent to Thebes as a hostage. In Thessaly, the little

territory of Phærea was much about the same time enslaved by a tyrant whose name was Alexander. Here also the Thebans interfered; but though they proved victorious, Pelopidas lost his life in one of the engagements which took place.

After this the war between Sparta and Athens was renewed, and Epaminondas now entered Lacedæmonia with so much rapidity, that he was in the great square of Sparta before he was effectually opposed. But Agelæus, who was little if at all inferior either in courage or skill to Epaminondas, again saved his capital: And pursuing him when he retired, an action was fought near Mantinea. In it the Thebans were victorious. The loss of Epaminondas however more than counterbalanced this advantage. His death was occasioned by a javelin which penetrated his breast. But he lived till victory was certain; when rejoicing in the success of his country, he pulled out the weapon, and immediately expired.

This brave and good man added to all the

qualities of a hero the milder virtues of philosophy. He was remarkable for his knowledge, his silence, and his modesty. Riches were neither sought after nor acquired by him. And all his actions seem to have been governed by the love of virtue and his country. With him the consequence of Thebes arose and ended. And peace with Sparta and Athens was almost instantly concluded.

The next war in which Athens was engaged was with the islands of Chios and Rhodes. The command of their fleet and troops were on this occasion entrusted to Iphicrates, Chares, and Timotheus; the latter of whom was son to Conon. Nothing very material happened in this contest, but Timotheus was fined by the people either for a real or supposed misconduct. As he died of grief he was probably innocent: And such are the vicissitudes of fortune, that his fine was laid out in repairing those very walls which his father had so generously rebuilt.

About the year 355, Greece was disturbed by a new war, which led to the most impor-

tant consequences. The Phocians having plowed some lands belonging to Delphos, the Dorians, in whose possession that oracle then was, complained to the Amphyctionic council. That assembly therefore fined the Phocians, who instead of paying it, seized the temple itself. In doing so they got immense riches, by means of which they engaged Sparta and Athens in their cause. On the other hand the Thebans, Locrians, and several petty states, sided with the Dorians: And the contest in this sacred war was long and doubtful. But at length both were so much weakened and so nearly poised, that each applied for aid to Philip king of Macedon. It will therefore be in this place necessary to give you a concise view of the then state of that kingdom.

When Philip was sent as a hostage to Thebes, the crown of Macedon belonged to his brother Perdiccas; And all that is necessary as to the kings that preceded him is, that they had greatly extended their territories. When Perdiccas died his sceptre de-

volved to Amyntas his infant son. And the reason of Philip's becoming a hostage then ceasing, he was permitted to return to his own country. When he arrived there he found every thing in confusion. There were not only two competitors who sought to wrest the crown from Amyntas, but Macedon was also threatened with attacks both from the Illyrians and Pæonians.

Philip at first took the management of these distracted affairs as guardian to his nephew Amyntas. In this office he soon displayed the great genius he possessed; and the Macedonians in a very short time set aside Amyntas, bestowing on Philip the regal dignity. Whilst at Thebes he had been placed in the house, and under the care of Epaminondas. Besides other improvements which he received when a hostage, a knowledge of the Theban discipline was not the least useful. And he not only introduced it to his own countrymen, but even improved upon it. That Macedonian phalanx, afterwards so famous, had its origin from Philip. This was

composed of 7,000 men drawn up sixteen in depth: And each line was armed with pikes, so proportioned as to make one uniform and dreadful front of points that were next to irresistible. Having in this and other instances new modelled the army, he led it against his enemies. And he very soon established himself on that throne to which he had been so unexpectedly exalted.

Philip was only 22 years old when he returned from Thebes: But his abilities supplied the want of experience, and his ambition urged him to the greatest undertakings. He extended his kingdom on all sides, and in his conquests between the rivers Nessus and Strymon he found some valuable mines of gold. These he caused to be wrought with great attention, and afterwards gained as much, by a judicious distribution of this valuable metal, as he did by his arms.

Lycophron, the son of Alexander of Phærea, had at this time not only become tyrant of his native country, but likewise threatened the other petty states of Thessaly. To avert

this Philip was applied to: And after some struggles Lycophron was beat, though aided by the Phocians. The independence of the Thessalians being thus secured by Philip, they became his friends and allies. And he had no interruption to fear from this quarter, in the extensive projects which he now began to have in view.

The next object of Philip was to chastise the Phocians for joining Lycophron; under which pretence he intended to get some footing in Greece. Hitherto the Athenians had been quiet spectators of the rapid progress made by the Macedonian monarch. This was owing to the principal men at Athens being secretly in the pay of Philip: And Demosthenes, the celebrated orator, who had not taken bribes; in vain attempted to expose the latent designs of this subtle and ambitious prince. But when his intention of entering Greece with an army was made known Demosthenes succeeded: And a body of Athenians took post in such a manner as to effectually prevent the invasion of Phocis.

Philip did not tamely submit to this interposition. He fitted out a fleet, and seized the Athenian ships wherever they were met with. He also prepared for an attack on their colonies in Thrace and on the Hellespont. But at the same time he amused them with negotiations: And Demosthenes in vain attempted to rouse the corrupt and luxurious people to those exertions which their situation required.

Whilst Philip was thus extending his dominions, and adding to his power, the Greek states were weakening each other by the sacred war. And when at length they applied to Philip, he gave both sides such answers as they deemed favorable. By this conduct he entered Greece with a considerable army unopposed by either party: Which a very few troops could have prevented had they been posted at the Streights of Thermopylae.

Duplicity was no longer necessary to his purposes, and Philip declared for the Dorians. Entering Phocis, its inhabitants sub-

mitted without a blow; and the Macedonian alledged that the part he took was in obedience to the former decree of the Amphyc-tionic council. In pursuance of this line of policy, he therefore now consulted the Am-phyctions as to the punishment they would have inflicted. This was so flattering an at-tention to that assembly, that they began with depriving Phocis of the right of sending a delegate to it, and bestowed that privilege on Macedon. They also honoured Philip by ap-pointing him to preside in the Pythian games. And thus he who was lately deemed a fo-reigner, was admitted as one of the principal Greek confederates.

The sentence passed on the Phocians was, that all their fortifications should be destroy-ed; nor were they to carry arms till all the money they had taken from the temple was repaid. Philip was appointed by the Am-phyctions to carry this sentence into execution, with the title of defender of Greece. Hav-ing done so, he wisely contented himself with the progress he had made in influencing these

confederate states: And for the present he quietly returned into Macedon.

Athens however now saw that Philip was at the head of Grecian affairs, and that her own consequence was no more. In the first transports of their rage they would have undertaken any thing the most desperate: And Demosthenes, who on other occasions could hardly rouse them to any enterprize, with difficulty restrained them. He however encouraged an underhand attack, and Diopithes, who had the chief command of the colonies in Thrace, was instructed to oppose any increase of Macedonian power in that quarter. This brought on new disputes with Philip, till at length the colonies were openly espoused by Athens.

There were at this time some trivial wars between the Messenians and Argives on one side, and the Spartans on the other: But they were attended with no material consequences. Philip also made a fruitless attempt on the island of Eubœa, which from its situation he justly styled the fetters of Greece. And hav-

ing chastised the Illyrians, who had invaded Macedon in his absence, he laid siege to Perinthus, a city of Thrace.

In this danger the Perinthians applied to Athens, who dispatched a considerable armament to their aid under the command of Chares. But this wretch was already so notorious for his avarice, cruelty, and extortions, that it was thought more advisable by the citizens of Perinthus to take their chance without admitting him within their walls. When this was known at Athens, those orators who were in the pay of Philip attempted to rouse the passions of the people against the Perinthians. The honest eloquence of Phocion however counteracted all their allegations: And he convinced the Athenians that they were in fault when they sent such a man as Chares: After which he was himself appointed to defeat the designs of Philip.

Phocion was not only a brave general and able orator, but also a strictly honest man. Though never tainted with bribes, he had generally opposed any war with Macedon,

because he knew his corrupt countrymen were unequal to the contest. But being now appointed against Philip he exerted himself to the utmost. And being aided by the Persians, who did not like the rising power of the Macedonians, he not only relieved Perinthus, but obliged Philip to abandon his designs on the Thracian Chersonesus.

Whilst Philip was before Perinthus, Macedonia was invaded by a people called the Medari, and Alexander, then only sixteen, gave a very early display of his courage and abilities. For taking the field against them, he not only defeated them, but took their city and its small territory. On his father quitting Thrace, he accompanied him to chastise a Scythian prince that had likewise attacked a part of his kingdom. During this expedition Philip had his horse killed in an action with the Tribœli, and would have lost his own life had not Alexander protected him with his shield till he was remounted: After which they were compleatly victorious.

The Locrians having plowed some lands

belonging to Delphos, a complaint was made to the Amphyctions. They accordingly ordered a part of their body to see the grievance redressed: But the Locrians, instead of submitting, forced the deputation to retire. This highly irritated the council; and Æschines, an orator from Athens, but privately paid by the Macedonian king, thereupon proposed, that Philip should be again ordered to execute their sentence. And by a proper recapitulation of his former conduct, the Amphyctions immediately concurred in this opinion.

Philip, who had been long preparing to controul Greece, most joyfully received this order. But he no sooner passed the Streights of Thermopylæ with a powerful army, than he threw off the mask. All Greece was in consternation: And the Delphic oracle having declared, that whoever opposed Philip would be destroyed, Demosthenes could not help exclaiming that even Pythia Philipized.

The Thebans and some other cities, however, united with Athens in a struggle for li-

berty. The contending armies met at Chæroneæ, the Greeks being commanded by Chares and Lyficles, two Athenian Generals. But though the battle was at first doubtful, the judgment of Philip at length decided the day. And the courage of Alexander, now only seventeen, not a little contributed to this important victory.

Philip in no action of his life was greater than in his conduct after this battle. His prisoners were treated with the utmost kindness, and not only dismissed without ransom, but had their baggage restored. It is true this was politic as well as generous, for he gained by it many friends, and softened the resentment of such as continued his enemies. He was now in fact the lawgiver to Greece, those he had not subdued by arms being governed by his gold. Contented however with the reality of power, he was satisfied with the name of Generalissimo of Greece. And civil dissensions being ended by his successful ambition, he resolved to bend the

whole force of Greece and Macedon against the Persian empire.

To all outward appearances, Philip was at this time the happiest of mortals. But the fact was far otherwise, and he suffered severely from domestic discord. His wife Olympias, the mother of Alexander, was divorced for infidelity, after which he married Cleopatra, the niece of Attalus, one of his generals. Disputes then arose between Alexander and his father, touching the succession. But they were at length ended, by Philip's assuring him, the crown should be his. At the same time desiring him to justify by his conduct, that preference he was resolved to bestow on him.

Olympias being sister to Alexander, King of Epirus, Philip dreaded her influence during his absence, as Macedonia was so near her brother's territories. To secure his friendship, therefore, he offered the Epirot Monarch a daughter in marriage. This was accepted, and the most magnificent entertainments were resolved on by Philip, at once to

honor these nuptials, and also to bid adieu to the different ambassadors from Greece. For part of the forces were already transported to Asia-Minor, and he was just ready to pass with the remainder.

The city of *Ægæ* was the place appointed for these exhibitions. Every state of Greece eagerly paid their compliments; and the ambassadors from Athens itself presented him with a crown of gold; assuring him, that no enemy of his should ever find refuge in their city. All this adulation seems to have made Philip fearful of being too much elated: And a page, by his orders, every morning reminded him that he was mortal. But this he, at least for a short time, soon after forgot; and in that very moment he was snatched into eternity.

Amongst other amusements of the first day, a play was exhibited. It was performed under the direction of Neoptolemus, an Athenian, and was highly acceptable to the King, as it represented him the conqueror of Asia. The next day there were to be

great exhibitions in the theatre. They accordingly began with a most splendid procession of the twelve great gods of Greece; and after their images, was one to Philip himself, decorated in the same manner, and paid the same veneration to by the surrounding people. Next came Philip in person, dressed in a white robe, and a crown upon his head. In order to be the more conspicuous, no person was allowed to walk near him. But when he reached the door of the theatre, a man, named Pausanias, rushed upon him, and stabbed him to the heart. Thus perished Philip, in the sight of that multitude before whom he had assumed, and who themselves had so lately paid him the honors of a God.

Pausanias was dispatched by several of the chief officers, before he could reach a horse that was prepared for him; and therefore he made no discovery, as to the true cause of this assassination. Alexander and his mother were not quite free from suspicion; though Alexander exerted himself to find out and punish all

who were supposed to be concerned. He also alledged, and with some probability, that Darius was at the bottom of it, in order to avert the meditated attack upon Persia. Some authors think, Pausanias acted entirely from himself. And certain it is, that Philip had given him great cause of complaint, by refusing him justice in a case, wherein Attalus had most grievously offended him. But the real source of this murder still remains a subject of conjecture.

Philip was a great, but not a good man. He possessed the art of distinguishing the true characters and abilities of men in the highest degree; and he was never mistaken either as to his ministers or generals. In return, he not only rewarded their services, but took every occasion of complimenting them, on whatever perfection they possessed: and by such attentions he repaid the past, and at the same time secured their future fidelity. But all his actions proceeded from policy, and the gratification of an unbounded ambition. He held the most solemn engagements as nothing;

and is said to have openly declared, that children were amused with toys, and men with oaths. With these sentiments, he practised every art and duplicity to gain his ends; and both his gold and arms were employed, without any regard to the justice or injustice of what he had undertaken. His own country was however highly indebted to him; and it was from the exertions of Philip, that Alexander was able to erect the Macedonian empire.

Philip was cut off in the 47th year of his life, and 24th of his reign. By Olympias, he had a daughter named Cleopatra, besides his successor named Alexander. His son Caranus, and his daughter Europa, were by his wife Cleopatra. And by other women he had two more daughters, and one son, who was named Aridæus.

Alexander was only 20 years old when he ascended the throne of Macedon. He had, however, already displayed, not only courage but conduct in the field; and from his infancy, he discovered an unbounded ambition.

Philip perceiving the vast genius of his son, provided the ablest preceptors he could meet with. Amongst these was Aristotle, the disciple of Plato, who was highly celebrated for his knowledge : And by such an education, the Macedonians had every thing to hope from their young and warlike King.

The character of Alexander was, however, as yet but little understood at Athens. When the news of Philip's death arrived there, Demosthenes gave himself up to the most extravagant joy. He conceived the liberties of Greece restored ; and in his harangues, he spoke of Alexander as a giddy boy, unworthy of Empire. Nay, to compleat his folly, he persuaded the Athenians to offer sacrifices to the gods ; at the same time dedicating a crown to Pausanias, the murderer of Philip. Darius was likewise so infatuated, as to consider the invasion of his kingdom at an end ; continuing in a state of inaction, and mistaken security.

Several of the states adjoining Macedon, in like manner considered the death of Philip

as a signal for regaining whatever they had lost. But Alexander soon convinced them, he was at least equal to his father: And in a short time he forced them to the same submissive state they had before experienced. In the wars that first took place, it was however reported, that Alexander was slain; on which, by the advice of Demosthenes, the Athenians had recourse to arms. The Thebans did the same, massacring the two principal officers of a Macedonian garrison, which Philip had left in their citadel, after the battle of Chæronea. When this was told to Alexander, he instantly set out for Greece; having just put an end to the troubles nearer to Macedon. And the Thebans did not know he was alive, till they saw him in person before their city. Though they had surprized and slain the two principal officers, the Macedonian garrison were still in possession of the citadel; and after an obstinate defence, the city was taken. A dreadful slaughter thereupon took place, and most of those who escaped it, were sold into captivi-

ty. From this general punishment, none were exempted except the posterity of Pindar, the families of the Priests, and those who had opposed the revolt. Thebes itself was then levelled to the ground; the house which had been Pindar's, being alone left standing. The memory of that poet was thus respected, on account of his having wrote a poem in honor of a former King of Macedon.

Alexander having heard of Demosthenes's contemptuous expressions, declared he would show him, before the walls of Athens, that he was a man. But that city, terrified at the fate of Thebes, did not wait for his approach: and their ambassadors found means to deprecate the wrath of the conqueror.

Every thing being now quiet in Macedon and Greece, and Alexander being also acknowledged the Generalissimo of all, he met the deputies from the different states at the city of Corinth. Here the final arrangement of the Persian war was settled. And all the great men of Greece, together with those who were distinguished in any branch of

knowledge, paid their court to Alexander. Diogenes, a Cynick Philosopher of these times, who resided in the suburbs of Corinth, did not however take any notice of the King. And as he was much talked of, Alexander had the curiosity to see him. The wants of Diogenes were few or none, for he lived in a hovel, eat and drank just enough to support life, and wore the meanest apparel. When Alexander visited him, he was found at the door of his hut, basking in the heat of the sun; and the King after informing him who he was, requested to know in what he could be serviceable? The Cynic replied, in nothing, but standing a little out of his sunshine. The attending courtiers expressed great contempt at such an answer; but the King checked such observations, by declaring, that if he was not Alexander, he would wish to be Diogenes.

It is more than probable, that the same motives actuated both. Both sought to be distinguished amongst men. Alexander aimed at being master of the world, conceiving

he had the means to accomplish it. Diogenes, having no such prospect, attempted even to outdo this ambitious Monarch. For he affected to despise all that that world contained, which the other was so anxious to subdue. The ambition of Diogenes was however far preferable to that of Alexander; for it fell on himself alone; whilst that of the Macedonian was gratified by the loss of life and happiness to millions of mankind.

From Corinth Alexander went to consult the Delphic Oracle. It was not at the time appointed for responses, and therefore the Pythoness refused to answer his enquiries. But Alexander drawing her by force into the temple, she exclaimed,—My son, thou art invincible!—And Alexander no sooner heard these words, than he retired, declaring, he wanted no other Oracle.

Having gratified his friends, with a very lavish distribution of his revenues and possessions, he now prepared for his Persian expedition. The care of Macedon and Greece was entrusted to Antipater, the faithful and

favorite minister of Philip. And then giving a last entertainment to his friends in Europe, and sacrificing at the same time to the gods, he set sail for Asia. The consequences of which I have already related.

During the contest for the Persian crown, the Thracians gave some disturbance; and whilst Antipater was chastising them, a revolt took place in Greece. This was fomented by the gold of Darius; and Agis, one of the Lacedæmonian Kings, soon found himself at the head of 22,000 foot and 2,000 horse. But Antipater did not give time for an addition to this army, instantly marching against it, at the head of 40,000 men. A battle was the consequence, in which Agis, after the most heroic exertions, was defeated and slain. And the power of Alexander was then more firmly established than ever, over the cities and kingdoms of Greece.

The Illyrians, Pæonians, and other states that were now rising in the neighbourhood of Macedon, have nothing for the historian.

Thessaly was divided into a number of small states that generally acted in concert. On the contrary, the little nations into which Thrace was split, were always at enmity with each other; and of these, the Odrysa was the most considerable.

The Thracians were a very savage and fierce people: they wept at the birth of children, and rejoiced when any person died. A plurality of wives was allowed, and on the husband's death, she who loved him best put an end to her life, and was interred with his remains; and such is the force of custom, that this honor was generally contended for, being decided by the relations of the deceased. Their deities and religion were nearly the same as in Greece; and having nothing more to add of this part of the globe, I shall here put an end to my present letter.

THIRD LETTER.

SICILY alone of all the islands, is in this era deserving of attention. And of its states there was none but Syracuse, that had arrived to any degree of consequence. In it a popular government first prevailed; till at length, Gelon by his virtues and abilities was raised to the supreme power. The Carthaginians, during his administration of affairs, invaded Sicily with a prodigious armament. This happened about the year 480, it being in consequence of a treaty with Xerxes king of Persia, who wished to prevent all succours to the Greeks from those colonies which had been planted in this quarter.

By the wise and courageous conduct of Gelon, he took or destroyed the whole of the Carthaginian fleet and army. A peace was the consequence, which proved both profitable and honourable: 1000 talents

were paid to him for the expences he had sustained; besides a crown of gold which was presented to his queen; and one article of this treaty peculiarly marks his humanity: for it being a custom to sacrifice men to the deities of Carthage, he bound them to abstain from so infamous a practice.

Gelon had possessed himself of the supreme authority, in order to rescue his country from foreign and domestic enemies. Having accomplished this, he disbanded his forces; laid aside the ensign of royalty; and in the garb of a private citizen, met the people, whom he had caused to be assembled. He then recounted to them the use he had made of the sceptre, and his motives for assuming it; at the same time submitting himself to whatever sentence they thought proper. Struck with such magnanimity, they with one voice called him to reassume the regal dignity; at the same time declaring it hereditary in his family;

and a statue was erected, commemorating his appearance as a private citizen.

The rest of Gelon's life was devoted to the arts of peace. He opposed luxury, encouraged agriculture and wholesome labour, and enjoined the practice of every virtue. His example kept pace with his precepts; and dying about the year 472, his afflicted subjects honored him as a demi god, at the same time raising a most superb sepulchre to his memory.

He was succeeded by his brother Hiero, who during a short reign added considerably to the territories of Syracuse. At his death, the crown devolved on Thrasybulus, another brother of Gelon's; but proving a cruel tyrant, the popular government was restored. Several ambitious citizens, though unsuccessfully, then attempted the sovereignty; and to prevent the completion of such designs, the petalism was instituted; which only varied from the Ostracism at Athens, in the name being written on the

leaf of a tree. This law was however of very short duration.

The Syracuseans were daily increasing in power; and it was to oppose their encroachments that some other cities of Sicily applied to Athens for aid. When Nicias and the Athenian forces were destroyed, the like application was made to Carthage. That rising power gladly interfered, and the contest was attended with various success. But during the contest Dionysius, a citizen of Syracuse, found means to usurp the supreme power.

The great object of Dionysius was to secure his authority: he therefore made peace with Carthage, allowing her to retain what she then possessed in Sicily, together with some new concessions. The other states of the island were to remain unmolested; and Syracuse with its territories was confirmed to Dionysius. New wars however took place, which ended in similar treaties. And Dionysius also made some successful descents on the coasts of Italy.

Being at length free from military enterprises, the Siellian tyrant devoted himself to poetic composition. It was a part of the contests which at this time took place in the Olympic Games: and having finished two pieces, he sent them to be submitted for the prize. But instead of applause, they were hissed and treated with contempt. This brought on a melancholy habit, and he indulged the resentment which he felt, by banishing or putting to death the most intimate of his friends. From this state of mind he was roused by fresh wars with the Carthaginians, followed by treaties equally perfidious on the part of both; which however made no material change in the affairs of Sicily.

Dionysius still retained his desire of poetic fame; and having composed a tragedy, it was offered for the prize at Athens. His joy was excessive when he received the news of having obtained it. He therefore sacrificed to the gods; at the same time favouring the citizens of Syracuse with a

most magnificent entertainment : but at it, he indulged so freely as to bring on a severe disorder, from which he never recovered. And as some say, he was helped out of the world by a sleeping draught, administered by his favourite queen.

Dionysius was a bloody and relentless tyrant. He was so conscious of the detestation he was held in, as not to admit his greatest favourites till they were examined : and not choosing to trust a Syracusean, his guards were all composed of mercenary strangers. When he harangued the people, he did it from an high tower. Having put to death his barber, hearing he had joked of holding his razor to the king's throat, he for a time was shaved by his daughters. But not choosing even to trust them, he latterly performed that operation on himself : and when ever he visited his wives, their apartments were first searched. The miserable state in which he thus lived, was truly represented by himself, in his treatment of Damocles, one of his courtiers. Damocles had said to him, that he must be the happiest of men. Dionysius soon after invited him

to a feast, at which Damocles eat and drank most deliciously, and was served with royal magnificence. At length he perceived a naked sword suspended from the ceiling by a single horse hair directly over him; on which all his satisfaction vanished, and he deemed himself happy in being permitted to retire. Yet such was the situation in fact, that this guilty and ambitious Syracusan tyrant had made choice of.

Dionysius the younger was little better than his father, whom he succeeded at Syracuse. He gave himself up to every kind of debauchery, till Dion, who was nearly connected to him, for a short time found means to restrain him. Plato, the disciple of Socrates, was prevailed on to become a preceptor to Dionysius, though the late tyrant had behaved most infamously to that celebrated philosopher. At first Dionysius seemed to have a relish for learning, and some taste for virtuous enjoyments. His vicious courtiers however found means to get Dion banished; soon after which Plato retired; and Dionysius returned with redoubled ardour, to all his irregularities.

Dion, who took shelter in Athens, for some time was permitted to enjoy the profits of his estates. But his fame, both for wisdom and virtue, reaching the tyrant of Syracuse, his property was confiscated. A still greater injury was then done him, for Dionysius obliged his wife, who was the king's half sister, to marry another. Thus provoked, Dion resolved to revenge himself, and knowing he was beloved at Syracuse, he ventured to Sicily with only 800 chosen followers. As he expected, the chief citizens immediately revolted from Dionysius, who shut himself up in the citadel. But the multitude at Syracuse were as fickle as other popular assemblies: and Heraclides one of their citizens, so totally turned them from Dion, that he would have lost his life, had not his own 800 followers, borne him in safety from their city. And both them and Dion were most hospitably received in the city of Leontini.

Heraclides was now the confidential man in Syracuse: he however conducted himself so ill, that the troops of Dionysius, by their sallies from the citadel destroyed vast num-

bers of the people, and threatened the total destruction of the city. Taught by misfortune, they then sent to implore the return of him they would have so lately destroyed; and Dion, superior to resentment, hastened to their relief. The troops of the tyrant were thereupon drove back to their citadel, which they soon surrendered, obtaining a conveyance to Italy, where Dionysius had before retired.

The wife of Dion had been detained in the citadel, and was now restored to her first husband. He was convinced compulsion, and not choice, had made her the property of another, and therefore received her with the utmost tenderness. He also shewed the greatness of his mind by becoming a mere private citizen the moment the enemy was subdued. He however from principle leaned to the Aristocracy; and Heraclides, whom he had generously pardoned, again plotted against him; under pretence of preferring a Democracy. In this situation Dion yielded to the solicitations of false or mistaken friends, and consented to the murder of Heraclides: but from that mo-

ment he lost his peace of mind. No casuistry could reconcile such an act to his feelings. All his subsequent days were attended with the deepest remorse, and at length he was himself assassinated by a citizen whose name was Calippus. Calippus did this from conceiving Dion an invincible obstacle to his seizing on the sovereignty; he however failed in his purpose, and perished in the attempt; but in the distractions that followed Dionysius found means to reassume the tyranny.

Misfortune had not rectified the faults of Dionysius. His government became as intolerable as ever; and the chief citizens thereupon applied for succour to Ictas the king or tyrant of Leontini. Finding however that Ictas was dealing treacherously, being secretly connected with Carthage; an application was made to Corinth, the mother state; and a considerable force was ordered under the conduct of Timoleon. Timoleon's dislike to tyranny was so great, that he slew his own brother for aiming at the supreme power in Corinth. And he had mourned this patriotic fratricide in so-

litude for twenty years, when he was thus chosen to give freedom to Syracuse.

Having effected a landing in Sicily, Timoleon had many contests with the Carthaginians, Icetas and Dionysius before he accomplished the object of his expedition. But at length the tyrant relinquished Syracuse, on the terms of conveying his wealth to Corinth; with the liberty of residing there without molestation.

No sooner were the Syracusans emancipated, than Timoleon resolved to do the same service to the other cities of Sicily. Petty tyrants had started up in most of them; but the people every where declaring for their deliverer, they were in a very short time either expelled or put to death. And after this service Timoleon bent all his thoughts to the expulsion of the Carthaginians, who had at this period very considerable settlements in the island of Sicily.

To prevent the completion of this scheme, 70,000 men took the field on the part of Carthage. Timoleon with only 7,000 men went in quest of them, and even of these, 1000 deserted him, being

terrified at the fearful odds they were to encounter. Timoleon was not however to be intimidated, and advancing with his 6000, he boldly engaged his numerous opponents. A dreadful storm of thunder and lightning just then drove in the face of the enemy; and what with this advantage, and the valour of his troops, he gained a decisive victory. The Carthaginian camp fell into his hands, wherein he found vast riches; and having amply rewarded the bravery of those soldiers who had continued faithful; he contented himself with forcing those who had left him, to abandon the island of Sicily.

After a few more conflicts with the Carthaginians and the deposed tyrants, peace was concluded on these terms: That all the Greek cities of Sicily should be free; that every person who chose to quit the Carthaginian settlements, should have leave to do so, and also to carry away their effects; and that Carthage should never aid any tyrants that might arise in this quarter. Liberty and peace being thus established throughout the island, Timoleon resigned all authority,

and became a private citizen of Syracuse.

But the Syracuseans, truly sensible of his merits, provided him with a magnificent country residence; and also with the best house in their city. The greatest respect and honors were shewn him whenever he appeared. He was also consulted in every thing of consequence, during the eight years which he survived this treaty with Carthage; and when he died they gave him a most sumptuous funeral, at the same time instituting annual sports to his memory.

The death of Timoleon happened very near the time that Durio fell by the treachery of Bessus; so that I shall here drop the Sicilian history, and proceed to that of Carthage. During this era the Carthaginians made very rapid strides to power. Besides their acquisitions in Sicily, and their extension of territory in Africa, the islands of Sardinia, Corsica, Majorca, Minorca, and Itea, acknowledged their jurisdiction. They had likewise established many colonies in Spain; and their fleet

was at this time equal, if not superior, to any in the world. About the year 508 commerce was considered by them in a very extensive point of view. We find them at that time making a treaty with Rome, in which the rights of navigation were particularly attended to. And a further one of the same nature took place towards the end of my present æra.

The form of government which succeeded the regal one at Carthage is not clearly ascertained; but its general features were these: They had two *suffetes* or annual magistrates. A senate. And an assembly of the people. The number of senators is obscure; but if all were unanimous on any question it became the law. If not, the subject in dispute was laid before the people, whose decision was final. One hundred and four were chosen from the senate to assist the *suffetes* as a council: And out of that council five were elected to judge in civil and criminal affairs. These judges filled up all vacancies in their own body, and also in the council. But vacancies in the senate could only be supplied by the votes of the people. And besides the

distinctions I have mentioned, the Carthaginians had also officers who answered to the questors and censors of Rome.

The kingdom of Cyrene was involved in several disputes with Carthage touching boundaries; but they were all terminated before the times of Alexander. This country had also shaken off the regal power, establishing a Democracy upon its ruins. The particulars of their laws and legislature are however unknown: And I shall now proceed to Rome and the rest of Italy.

FOURTH LETTER.

THE conduct of Tarquin the younger was suited to the means by which he gained the Roman crown. Numbers of the worthiest citizens were assassinated by his orders, and still more were obliged to seek their safety in flight. By means of a mercenary army he also kept the people from assembling; and his tyranny appeared to be most firmly established.

In order to add to his security he gained over Octavius Mamilius, a principal man a-

mongst the Latins, by giving him a daughter in marriage: And through his means Tarquin was raised both to the title and authority of general over the Latine forces. He also entered into different treaties with the neighbouring states; proving successful in several wars which he had undertaken. But occasion was only wanting to call forth the Roman spirit; and a dreadful transaction now happened, which ended in the expulsion of Tarquin.

Collatinus, the kinsman of Tarquin, had a beautiful wife whose name was Lucretia. Her charms had made an impression on Sextus one of the king's sons, and he meditated only how he might gratify his passion. For this purpose he visited her whilst Collatinus was from home; and was entertained as the relation of her husband. But in the dead of night he entered the chamber of Lucretia. She at first resisted his purpose, though he threatened her with instant death, till he added that he would not only kill her, but also a slave whom he would lay beside her, and then declare that he had caught them in adultery. In this dreadful dilemma the

love of fame prevailed. She however resolved not to survive it, and Sextus was no sooner gone than she instantly sent for her husband and her father. They soon attended, accompanied by Publius Valerius, and Lucius Junius Brutus. She then related the fatal story, and confirmed its truth by plunging a dagger to her heart.

Brutus, being of high extraction, had saved his life by counterfeiting madness; and he had done it so effectually as to prevent all suspicion in the Tarquins. But now throwing off the mask, he drew the bloody dagger from Lucretia's breast, making those who were present swear they would revenge her. Tarquin was at this time besieging a city of the Rutuli. They therefore publicly exposed the body in the city of Rome. And the dreadful tale which accompanied it roused the people almost to madness. From the city it spread to the camp, where the tyrant and his family soon found that flight alone could give them hopes of safety. And having thus got rid of the Tarquins, the people in full assembly took a solemn oath that they would never suffer another king at Rome.

The Sybilline oracles were before this purchased by Tarquin, and deposited in a vault beneath the Capitol. The Sybils were supposed to be young women endued with a prophetic spirit, who put down their knowledge of futurity in Greek verses. These predictions were chiefly relative to Rome, and two persons were appointed to take care of them; as also to consult them in all public calamities. And we shall hereafter find them in high repute amongst the Romans.

It was in the year 508 that Tarquin's expulsion took place. To supply the office of a king, two annual magistrates called consuls were elected by the people. They presided over the civil and military affairs; and a rex sacrorum, whose office was for life, had the direction of religious institutions. So that in fact no alteration was now made, but a division and limitation of the power before vested in the king.

Notwithstanding the vices of the Tarquins they had many adherents amongst the Roman youth, and a conspiracy for their restoration was at this time detected. Brutus,

who was one of the first consuls, had the misfortune to find two of his own sons brought before him for this offence. He sentenced them to die; and though strongly solicited to change it into banishment, the firmness of the consul prevailed over the feelings of the man; for they were whipt and beheaded by the lictors even in his presence. He then for a short time left the tribunal to indulge the sorrows of a father. And returning to it he insisted that the same severity should be exercised on the rest of the conspirators.

Tarquinius Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, and colleague of Brutus, had not only endeavoured to spare some near connexions who had been in the conspiracy, but also shewed some other sentiments favorable to Tarquin. Brutus therefore caused him to be deposed and banished. To show however that it was from no personal motive, he gave him five talents of his own money, and also procured him twenty from the state. After which P. Valerius was elected to the vacant consulship.

Tarquin was able to raise a considerable army in Etruria, with which he approached

towards Rome. The consuls therefore took the field, and a dreadful conflict ensued. But though Brutus fell, victory declared for the Romans. And Tarquin, having lost a great part of his army, was forced to retire.

Valerius having pronounced the funeral oration over his colleague, who was honored with a most magnificent funeral, obtained some new laws and regulations. An appeal was instituted from the judgment of the consuls to the people. It was also enacted, that any man might kill whoever aspired to the sovereignty; but then he must prove to the people, that the deceased actually did so, otherwise it was murder. All public money from henceforth was to be lodged in the temple of Saturn. And two new annual officers, called *Quæstors*, were to superintend the treasury. He also got it decreed, that all orders of the Consuls must be instantly obeyed, under a small penalty. And old widows and men, who had no children, were exempted from public tribute. Valerius, by his services and laws, became greatly beloved by the people; and he was on that account honored with the name of *Poplicola*.

Porcena, a King of Hetruria, now undertook the cause of Tarquin, and would have taken Rome, but for the gallant conduct of Horatius Cocles. This valiant Roman defended a narrow pass, till a bridge over the Tiber was demolished. Having thereby saved the city, he threw himself into the river, and likewise secured his own safety. A statue of brass was then erected to him, and he got as much land as a plough could surround in one day.

But Porcena did not yet relinquish his enterprize, and Rome was on the point of being starved into compliance. To avert this, a young Roman, named Mucius Cordas, disguised himself as an Hetrurian, and mistaking the secretary of Porcena for the King, he stabbed him in the act of administering justice to the people. Being seized, Mucius told the King, that a number of other Romans had pledged themselves to rid their country of such an enemy. And thrusting his hand into a pan of coals, he shewed him his own fortitude, for he suffered it to be consumed without wincing. The league mentioned by Mucius was entirely his own inven-

tion; but it had the desired effect, when considered with Mucius's late heroism. And Porcena abandoned the interests of Tarquin, at the same time concluding a peace with the Romans.

There were several trivial attempts subsequent to this, for the restoration of Tarquin. At length a very formidable one took place, no less than 24 Latin cities having combined for that purpose. In this situation, the Romans thought it advisable to give absolute power to a single person, under the name of Dictator. T. Lartius was raised to this high office, and as twelve Licitors had preceded each Consul, the whole 24 attended on him. He might resign his power at any time, but could not hold it longer than six months. And whoever he named General of the horse, had the second authority during his continuance in office.

By the exertions of Lartius, the Latins for the present desisted; though they soon renewed their attempt. Aulus Posthumius was then made Dictator, and Tarquin received a final overthrow, for he never more disturbed the peace of Rome. In this battle Sex-

tus, who had occasioned his father's expulsion, was slain, as was also his brother : and Mamilius, the son in law of Tarquin, likewise lost his life on the same occasion.

Domestic dissensions immediately followed this conquest of a foreign enemy. The creditors had a right to enslave their debtors, and to treat them with the greatest cruelty. This calamity chiefly fell on the lower orders ; and having in vain attempted a constitutional relief, they resolved, on the next occasion, to refuse their military service. They did so, in a war which now took place with the Volsci. And the senate was forced to decree, that the debtors should not remain at the mercy of the creditors. On which the necessary levies were immediately accomplished.

It should seem, that the regulation of serving by centuries was already broke through ; for otherwise the lowest class would have been of no consequence in the formation of an army. But we shall find the wise regulations of Servius Tullius infringed in various instances. And the consequence of it, was a

perpetual animosity amongst the higher and lower orders of the Roman people.

The dispute with the Volsci was no sooner ended, than the Senate, at the instigation of Appius Claudius, absolutely refused to carry their decree, as to the debtors, into execution. This very justly irritated the people, and a new war happening, they again refused to serve. However, Manius Valerius being made Dictator, promised to obtain relief of the Senate. And being highly popular, and the brother of Poplicola, they relied on his integrity. Proving successful, his services were deemed so great, that he was voted a triumph, and honored with a curule chair to see the public sports; which was also made hereditary. He then demanded of the Senate to fulfil his promise to the people. This they absolutely refused; on which Valerius, having first resigned the Dictatorship, assembled the people. He then plainly told them, why he could not keep his word; at the same time submitting himself to their discretion. Sensible of his good wishes, they conducted him home with the highest applause. But they immediately marched to the sacred

mount, under the conduct of Cecinius Bellutus; and from thence they threatened the Senate with destruction.

Before this the Senators had behaved with treachery and meanness; and now terrified beyond measure, they were forced to grant far more than would have fulfilled their original decree. All the debts then existing were abolished: and the people demanded and obtained five new officers, under the name of Tribunes of the people. They were to see the rights of the citizens at large preserved from violation. No new law could be made without their concurrence; and their persons were voted sacred. This important alteration, in the Roman constitution, took place about the year 488; and two Plebeian Ædiles were at the same time instituted, who were to obey such orders as they received from the Tribunes.

Soon after this compromise, the Consul Posthumius Cominius led an army against the Volsci. He proved successful, making himself master of Corioli, their chief city. And Caius Marcius, a young Patrician, having particularly signalized himself, was voted a tenth

part of the spoil, with the additional name of Coriolanus. Already high in the esteem of the army, he increased it, by refusing the riches decreed him. By further military services, he also added to the reputation he was already held in at Rome. But a proud overbearing spirit was the characteristic of Caius Marcius; nor could he endure the power of the Plebeian Tribunes. Indeed they studied to humble the Patrician order: and on one occasion, Coriolanus got so angry in a public assembly of the people, as to abuse both them and their Tribunes. In return, the Tribunes ordered him to be put to death: but for the present, he was rescued by the Patricians. They were not however able to avert a public trial: and in order to secure his condemnation, the Tribunes took the votes of the citizens by tribes, and not by centuries; in consequence of which, he was banished from his native country.

Coriolanus, on leaving Rome, took the bold resolution of trusting himself to Tullus Aufidius, the General of the Volscians. He was not mistaken, for Tullus not only received him with kindness, but by his gene-

rous interference, prevailed with his countrymen to give him the joint command of their forces. These two Generals then entered the Roman territories, which they plundered with impunity : and Rome was so distracted with its own dissensions, as not even to attempt the prevention of its investiture.

The consternation which this occasioned is undescribable. Coriolanus, whom they had so lately banished, had the means, and was about to execute the severest vengeance. They had no adequate force to avert the danger that threatened them, and the only hope of safety, was from the clemency of him that they had treated with injustice and ingratitude. In this degraded situation, a deputation of the most venerable Senators, who had been intimates of Coriolanus, were sent to implore his mercy. Deaf to their entreaties, the Priests, Augurs, and other officers of religion, were next ordered to deprecate his wrath. Their errand was also in vain ; and as the last effort, to avert the destruction of their capital, the most venerable matrons, dressed in the deepest mourning, were dispatched to the Volscian camp. At the head

of these, was Vetruria the mother, and Volturnia the wife of Coriolanus. And no longer able to withstand their entreaties, he granted a truce for one year; at the same time withdrawing the army from before the walls of Rome.

Though Tullus Aufidius was at first possessed of equal power, the superior courage and skill of Coriolanus had given him, in fact, the sole command of the Volscians. Coriolanus, however, thought it necessary to justify his conduct to the senate of Corioli. He therefore met them in full assembly, and rose to account for the truce which had been granted. But at this moment he was assassinated, as is generally supposed, at the instigation of Aufidius. The Volscians did not punish this murder, probably from thinking his conduct very unjustifiable both to them and to Aufidius. In return for the services he had before done them, he was, however, honored with a most magnificent funeral.

The character and fate of Coriolanus is well worthy of attention. Of heroic courage—Of great abilities—Of high rank—And a soul superior to the love of riches,—the

greatest things might justly be expected from Caius Marcius Coriolanus. But pride—haughtiness—and an impetuous temper, defeated all these qualifications. Had he been truly great and wise, his unjust banishment would never have led him to join the enemies of Rome. And were it possible that a good man should take the command of an army against his country; he ought then to discharge his duty to the state that had adopted him. The only excuse that can be made for this Roman is, that he was a slave to his passions. He was a slave to them when he insulted the people and their Tribunes. He was a slave to them when he entered into the service of the Volscians. And, in short, he in every thing wanted that fixed and steady principle, which is indispensably necessary to real greatness. Nor can any permanent virtue exist, until we have brought our passions to subjection.

The trivial wars in which Rome was engaged, have no business in a history like this. I shall therefore pass them over, and proceed to the next dissention between the senate and people. The Patricians had arbitrarily di-

vided the conquered lands amongst themselves, which the inferior citizens very justly complained of. And they at length so far prevailed, as to obtain this decree from the Senate: 'That the next Consuls should name ten men of Consular dignity, to make a distribution of the lands in question. Notwithstanding this, several Consulates escaped, without the Decemviri being appointed. Which so exasperated the people, that they summoned the Consuls L. Æmilius and Vo-piscus Junius to appear before the assembled citizens, and give an account of their reasons for not naming the Decemviri. Genucius, a Tribune of the people, was the cause of this measure. And being found dead the very morning of the trial, without any visible cause for it; the superstitious people were persuaded by the Patricians, that it was owing to the vengeance of the Gods, who were displeased at such an attack upon the Consular dignity. And for the present, no farther steps were taken as to the Decemviri.

Hitherto the Tribunes were elected by the city tribes only, and the votes were taken by the Curia, into which those tribes alone

were divided. The influence of the Patricians was infinitely greater in the city than country; and consequently they were more likely to have Tribunes favorable to their interests, than if the right of voting was in the tribes of all the Roman territories. Valero, one of the Tribunes, therefore proposed, that the votes for that office should thenceforth be taken from the tribes at large. And after many obstinate struggles, the Senators were at length compelled to submit to this diminution of their power.

The people had not forgotten the Decemviri, and at times the question was revived. But a new proposition, made by C. Terentius, now employed the whole of their attention. The particular laws of Rome were in a great measure undefined. No written code existed, and consequently, much was in the breast of the magistrates for the time being. Terentius therefore proposed, that ten men should be appointed to render the regulations of the state fixed and permanent. And to have the laws publicly set up in the forum, that all might know the penalties of disobedience. Virginus, a Tribune,

and the bulk of the citizens, gave their most strenuous support to so just a proposition; but it was iniquitously opposed by the Patricians. All the great offices were filled from their order, except the Tribunes and Ædiles of the people: and a discretionary power arising from undefined laws, added to their influence. This contest rose to an inconceivable height; during which, Appius Herdonius, a Sabine of great power and fortune, surpris'd and made himself master of the capitol.

Herdonius effected this with only 4000 men; whom he embarked by night upon the Tiber. And Rome was in the utmost consternation, when the morning proved to them, that an enemy possessed their strongest fortrefs. The people, notwithstanding, refused to arm till the Terentian law was agreed to. In their present situation, the senate had no alternative. And having complied, the Consuls inrolled an army, with which they soon retook the capitol, Herdonius losing his life, together with all his followers.

This danger was no sooner over, than the Senate rescinded their late resolution, alledg-

ing it was made through compulsion : and though a war now broke out with the Volsci and Sabines, Quinctius Cincinnatus, by means of the dictatorial power, raised the necessary levies. He had before distinguished himself in the Consular office, and he now received a triumph for his decisive victories. After which he returned to hold his own plow, a small farm being his only means of sustenance.

When the next levies were wanted, the people had recourse to their old remedy. But being for the present satisfied with five additional tribunes, they gave the necessary service. They, however, soon reassumed the pursuit of the Terentian law. And the civil dissensions of Rome at this time ran so high, that the Consuls were ordered to prison by the Tribunes ; on which they were rescued, and the Tribunes beaten by the Patricians, who happened to be present.

Things were in this state, when Sicinius Dentatus, was raised to the tribuneship. His influence with the people was excessive, having by his valour obtained fourteen civic crowns, and three mural ones. He began

with getting a decree, that the peoples' tribunes might fine to a certain amount, as well as the Consuls. And having thus strengthened his office, he pursued the Terentian law with so much zeal, that the Senate no longer dared to withhold their compliance. But it was agreed, that three Patricians should first travel into Greece, for the purpose of examining all their laws. And it was about the year 448, that this embassy took place.

Having executed their commission, the people were assembled to elect ten men to frame those laws, by which they were henceforth to be governed. On this occasion the votes were taken by centuries, and Appius Claudius, with nine others, were invested with absolute authority for one year. At the end of it, they submitted ten tables of laws to the people; which being approved of, they were ordered to be engraven on pillars of brass, and to be fixed up in the Forum. This regulation happened about the year 446; but it does not appear that any great change was made in the laws that had been hitherto in use.

Some additions being however thought ne-

cessary that would fill two new tables, another Decemviri was appointed for the ensuing year. This was, in fact, composed of Appius Claudius, and his creatures, as he had succeeded in obtaining the highest popularity. Each of these new officers, was attended by twelve Lictors; and as their power was absolute, and all in subservience to Appius, it was not difficult to apply it to the most ambitious purposes. Appius accordingly encouraged all whom he found disposed to be his followers, letting them escape, though guilty of the greatest crimes. Whilst on the other hand, the most trivial offence in such as were not his friends, was punished with exorbitant severity. This conduct in a short time, procured these Decemvirs, all the most profligate and abandoned men of Rome; and by their means, they at length established a most abominable and despotic tyranny.

A great number of the Senators retired from Rome, for the Decemvirs had far exceeded the time for which they were elected; and all power was taken from the Senate. A war, however, breaking out with the Volsci and Æqui, levies became necessary. And

Appius thought it would be prudent to have the sanction of the Senators who continued at Rome. Most of them were his own creatures, and he carried all he proposed. But C. Claudius, the uncle of Appius, and L. Valerius, the grandson of Poplicola, had the courage and virtue to arraign the conduct of these usurpers. It was indeed in vain, the assembly being devoted to their will. And the most virtuous citizens seeing no chance of liberty being restored, fled from a government they could not endure. On which their property was confiscated, and applied to the use of these tyrants.

When the Decemvirs were appointed, all other magistrates were suspended; and the people having no tribunes to stir them to action, quietly submitted to be enrolled against the enemy. Ten legions were thereupon raised, two of which remained at Rome under the command of Appius, and Sp. Oppius, one of his colleagues; whilst the rest were led into the field by the other Decemviri. And during that service, Sicinius Dentatus, was treacherously taken off by the tyrants, who were fearful of his influence. But a very un-

expected event was now to lead to the punishment of this, and all their offences.

L. Virginius, a gallant plebeian soldier, had a beautiful daughter, whose name was Virginia. Whilst the father was serving in one of the absent legions, she had the misfortune to be seen by Appius. He, in vain, made every overture, and finding all common modes of debauchery impracticable, he resolved to compel her to submission. For this purpose, a creature of his claimed her as the daughter of his female slave, alledging that the wife of Virginius had gratified her husband's love of children, by purchasing Virginia when a child, and then imposing her for her own offspring. She was therefore seized and brought before Appius, as had been preconcerted; who, upon hearing some false witnesses that were ready, decreed her as the property of him who claimed her. Just at this moment, her lover Icilius, to whom she had been promised, rushed into the court. He seized the lovely object of his heart, at the same time declaring no power should part them; and the people shewing every disposition to aid him, Appius did not think proper to enforce

his orders. He seemed now to think that some mistake might be made, and wished to wait till her father Virginius should come from the camp. He therefore took sufficient bail for the appearance of the maid the next day; at the same time ordering, that Virginius should be sent for to give his testimony as to the reality of the birth of Virginia.

Icilius, Virginius, and his daughter, accordingly appeared before the tribunal of Appius. The most satisfactory evidence was then produced, that she was indeed the offspring of Virginius. But Appius having now an ample force at hand, gave orders that his former decree should be carried into execution. The unhappy father was well acquainted with his real purpose. He therefore plunged a knife into her heart, at the same time exclaiming, that thus alone he could preserve a daughter's honour. The astonished Appius, with those around him, were for a short time incapable of action. Virginius, therefore, drew the bloody weapon from the bosom of Virginia, swearing by her precious blood, that he devoted Appius to the infernal Gods; and hastening from the croud, he

mounted a swift horse, on whom he soon reached his brother Legionaries. He then related the dreadful tale, with the knife yet in his hand; and being much beloved, the revolt became instant and universal. The eight Legions then marched to Rome, where they possessed themselves of the Aventine hill, most solemnly declaring, they would never lay down their arms till freedom was restored.

In Rome, Icilius, with the dead body of Virginia, had produced a similar revolution. The two legions stationed there, had likewise revolted, and now united with the others. They then elected twenty military tribunes, out of whom two were chosen to command the whole. And the Senate being assembled, the old magistracy was fully reinstated.

The eight Decemvirs, who commanded in the camp, escaped by flight. But Appius Claudius, and Sp. Oppius were seized and imprisoned. They, however, were either dispatched, or put themselves to death before a public trial could be ordered. And thus ended the short and wicked usurpation of these ten abominable tyrants.

Two very popular men, named L. Valerius and M. Horatius Barbatus, were the first Consuls after the abolition of the Decemvirs. And they became still greater favourites with the people, by the laws which they procured. A vote of the majority of the tribes was now made, to bind every Roman ; whereas it before affected only those who were not Senators. All magistrates were also from henceforth to be elected by tribes, instead of Centuries or Curia; which you may easily perceive was highly raising the democracy. And all decrees of the Senate were in future to be lodged in the Temple of Ceres ; it having been, before this, a practice to suppress such as were extorted from them.

On account of these laws, the Senate refused a triumph to the Consuls, though they well deserved it for their success against the Æqui and Volsci. But the people gave an immediate instance of the power they had acquired ; for, assembling and voting by tribes, a triumph was not only decreed but enforced, without the Senators daring to oppose it.

Three or four years subsequent to this, the people proposed and carried an abolition of a

law, which forbade the intermarriage of Patricians and Plebeians. They also attempted to make the Consulate, which had hitherto been confined to the Patrician order, eligible for every citizen. This was highly disagreeable to the Senate; but the people were too strong to be openly opposed. A plan was therefore contrived to satisfy their expectations, without suffering a Plebeian to rise to consular dignity. The Patricians consented, that the people at their option, might elect annually, military tribunes, instead of Consuls: and whenever they did so, any citizen was eligible. As the power of the Consuls was on such occasions to be vested in the military tribunes, this was in fact what they wanted. And this distinction seems rather to have been founded in the pride of those who had been already Consuls, than in any real advantage to the rights of the Patricians.

This change in the Roman government, if it may be called one, happened about the year 437. But the Tribunes of the people, and the chief Plebeians, were for some years disappointed in the object that led to this alteration. They thought that some of them-

selves would be made military tribunes. When on the contrary, the people constantly chose them out of the Patrician order. And finding that to be the case, there were sometimes military tribunes, and sometimes consuls, according to the caprice of the people, or their leaders.

About the year 435, a new and uncommon office was instituted at Rome. Two men called Censors, whose post was for five years, had a right to inflict penalties, and to degrade such as they deemed foolish or vicious, at their discretion. This soon became an appointment of consequence, and for fear of its abuse, it was shortened to 18 months duration. Not many years subsequent to the Censors, two additional Quæstors were made. Their duty was to take an account of the spoils made in their wars; as also to supply the camps with every thing necessary. And as both these Censors and Quæstors were chosen from Patricians or Plebeians, at the option of the people, it was still an addition to the power of the democracy.

At this time the lower order of citizens suffered greatly by their military service, as the

wife regulations of Servius Tullius, on that head, had gone into disuse. The Senate therefore enacted, about the year 399, that every foot soldier should henceforth be paid from the public treasury whilst he was enrolled. In about two years more, the horse were also put on the same regulation. And these acts of the Senate were so acceptable, that the people and their tribunes for some time abstained from disturbing the public tranquillity.

The military tribunes were at first but three in number. They had now been increased to six : and about the year 396, one Plebeian was at length nominated by the people. The year following, there was however but one Patrician elected ; and a great mortality breaking out in the Roman camp, it was ascribed to the people, thus destroying all distinctions of rank and birth. The Sybilline Oracles were then consulted, and the Duumviri thereupon declared, that they must feast Apollo, Latona, Diana, Hercules, Mercury, and Neptune, for eight days together. This was accordingly done by taking down their statues, and laying them along on

couches, at tables which had been prepared. And the mortality ceasing, fresh credit was given to the Sybilline predictions.

For two years the people elected none but Patricians to the military tribuneship. But at the end of that period, having forgot their superstitious fears, all the six were Plebeians. The Roman affairs, however, at this time required a dictator ; and Furius Camillus was raised to that important office.

Camillus first vanquished those enemies who had taken the field. He then led his victorious forces against the city of Veii, which had for ten years defied the utmost efforts of Rome. But by mining, Camillus now obtained a secret entrance. And having made himself master of the place, those who escaped the sword, were sold into slavery. The money arising from it, he, however, gave to the public treasury, instead of distributing it amongst his forces. And though he was voted a triumph, he thereby most highly offended the soldiery. Insomuch, that he soon after preferred a voluntary banishment, rather than stand a trial with which he was threatened. He was however free from all real

guilt; and we shall soon see him recalled with redoubled honors, by his ungrateful countrymen.

The Delphic Oracle had been consulted as to the taking of Veii; and by its directions the Lake Alba was drained as a necessary preliminary. For this advice, and the consequent success, a gold vase was now voted to Apollo at Delphos. But all Rome could not afford enough of that metal, till the women voluntarily gave up their ornaments. And then the vase only weighed eight talents. In return, the Senate decreed that funeral orations might thenceforth be pronounced on illustrious women; and they were also permitted to go in chariots to be spectators of the public games. The small strides made towards luxury, are amply illustrated by this scarcity of gold; and it was not till after the destruction of Carthage, and Corinth, that Rome became completely venal and corrupt.

It was not long after the voluntary exile of Camillus, when deputies arrived from the city of Clusium. They acquainted the Romans, that Brennus, the King of a Gaulish nation, had passed the Alps, and invaded

their city ; at the same time imploring their interference. Three of the Fabii family, which had greatly distinguished itself at Rome, were accordingly sent to the camp of Brennus. They represented to him, that he could have no right to Clusium, a city of Etruria, at the same time soliciting him to withdraw his forces. But Brennus replied, that all things belonged to the strongest ; adding that Rome itself could claim no better title to most of its territories. The Fabii then passed into Clusium, and though in the character of ambassadors, they assisted in a sally from that city, slaying a principal Gaulish officer. Brennus therefore demanded, that the Fabii should be surrendered to him by Rome, to which they had returned. But instead of complying, the Romans elected them military tribunes in the presence of the Gaul's ambassadors. This so irritated Brennus, that he instantly marched his whole army to chastise the Romans. It consisted of 70,000 men, whilst Rome had only 40,000 to oppose it. And the latter was totally defeated in an engagement not very distant from Rome.

The most dreadful consternation was the

consequence. All thoughts of defending the city was abandoned, and they contented themselves with throwing a very strong garrison into the Capitol. All the rest of the inhabitants then retired, except eighty of the old Patricians. These, either unable or unwilling to retreat, resolved to meet their fate with firmness. They therefore dressed themselves in the habits peculiar to the most exalted stations which they had respectively filled. And seating themselves in the Forum they patiently waited for the arrival of the Gauls. As they remained motionless, Brennus and his soldiers at first fight took them for the statues of the Roman deities. But one of the Gauls touching the beard of M. Papirius received a stroke from his cane; in consequence of which he and the rest of these aged senators were immediately dispatched. Rome was then plundered, and reduced to ashes: Which event took place 123 years after the establishment of the consular dignity.

Ardea was the place to which Camillus had retired; and the Gauls now dispatched some of their forces to attack that city. In this

danger Camillus was called to the command of the Ardean youth; who not only defeated, but cut the troops that came against them entirely to pieces. On hearing this great numbers of the Roman citizens solicited Camillus to put himself at the head of their desperate affairs. This he made no other objection to than the illegality of his doing so, unless the military tribune, who remained in the Capitol, should call him to the dictatorship. On which Pontius Cominius found means to pass into the Capitol, returning with a full appointment. And then Camillus took immediate steps to restore the Roman power.

The way Cominius made this dangerous expedition was by getting down the Tiber by night. He then landed at the foot of the Tarpeian rock, clambering up a most difficult path till he gained the wall that surrounded the Capitol. But though he escaped, the Gauls perceived that some one passed that way: And Brennus resolved to attempt a surprise by the path he now discovered. The Romans were so secure as to that quarter as to deem a guard unnecessary. From this neglect the two foremost Gauls who were

sent on this duty reached the foot of the wall before the least alarm had been given. But a flock of geese, sacred to Juno, who were kept in that place, then began to cackle: And Manlius, a gallant Roman, happening to be awake ran to see the occasion of it. By this time the two first Gauls had gained the top of the rampart. Manlius however with the first stroke of his sword disabled one, and immediately tumbled the other down the precipice. The alarm then became general, and the forces of Brennus, having no longer any chance of success, abandoned this enterprize.

Though there were several dogs in the fortress none had given the alarm. One of these animals was therefore afterwards annually impaled, whilst the golden image of a goose was carried in procession. For the present Manlius was rewarded with such things as were in the power of the garrison: And a house was afterwards built for him close to the Capitol.

But this escape seemed only temporary. The want of provisions became so great that death or a surrender was the sole alterna-

five. A treaty was accordingly opened, which was on the very point of being concluded, when Camillus advanced to their relief. By his judicious and gallant conduct Brennus in his turn experienced the most fatal overthrow. And it is said not one of all his army ever regained their native country.

By this happy change the Romans not only regained the wealth of which Rome was plundered, but they also got a considerable booty from the Gauls. This was immediately applied to the rebuilding of the city, under the inspection of Camillus. The dictatorial power was given him for one year, though it never before had been granted for more than half that period. And having reinstated every thing, he was ever afterwards with justice considered as the second founder of Rome.

On the expiration of his dictatorship military tribunes were again appointed. But fresh dangers obliged them to recall Camillus to absolute power. Rome had long been the terror of all her neighbours. The Æqui, Volsci, Hernici, with all the Latin and He-

trurian cities, therefore conceived a favorable opportunity now offered to humble if not destroy the Roman people. And a most formidable combination took place amongst these enemies to Rome.

But the wisdom and valour of Camillus were more than equal to all the dangers which threatened them; and in a very short period he totally broke this confederacy: After which he for the third time entered Rome in triumph. During this campaign he took very great spoils in consequence of his victories. Insomuch that he returned the Roman ladies an equal quantity of gold with that they had furnished for Apollo. And he himself dedicated three vases of the same metal to the goddess Juno.

Manlius who had saved the Capitol was now at the head of a powerful party. He concealed the most improper views under the pretence of procuring the abolition of debts and the Agrarian law. But his ambitious designs breaking out he was tried in comitia. And the votes being taken by centuries he was condemned for attempting the sovereignty; in consequence of which he was thrown

from that very Tarpeian rock which he had so successfully defended. And the house which had been built by the public, as a reward for his services, was then razed to the ground.

Though the people had been gaining strength ever since the expulsion of the Tarquins they were far from satisfied. And not contented with what they had got by the election of military tribunes, they contended that the Consuls should be restored; and that one of them must always be from the Plebeian order. They also insisted that no Roman citizen should possess more than 500 acres of land. And they sought a decree that whatever sums debtors had paid for interest should be deemed a liquidation of the principal. As the people could by their act bind every member of the Roman state, the Patricians had no open means of preventing these new regulations. But they secretly bribed eight of the ten tribunes of the people, who as constantly as any of these laws were proposed, cried Veto. Now, by way of giving greater power to the lower order of citizens, any one of their tribunes had a right

to stop all proceedings by crying Veto: And thus the people were defeated by the perfidy of their own officers. But Licinius Stolo and L. Sextius, the other two tribunes, were resolved to be revenged on the Patricians. They accordingly cried Veto whenever the people were called together to elect new magistrates. And by this means Rome continued for five years without any military tribunes or consuls; all power being in fact for that time in the tribunes and ædiles of the people.

Some pressing dangers obliged Stolo and Sextius, for a short time to withhold their veto, and military tribunes were once more elected. To gratify the people an alteration also took place, as to the keepers of the Sybilline oracles. They were now increased to ten in number, one half of whom were to be plebeians. Whereas there had been but two before employed; and they were always Patricians. This did not however alter the pursuits of Stolo and Sextius. They became more violent than ever, and Camillus was raised to the dictatorship. But so far were they from submitting to his jurisdic-

tion, that they ordered Camillus to be seized. This was not indeed accomplished, as the Patricians about him were able to repulse those who attempted it. But the senate perceiving all opposition for the present in vain, acceded to the three laws. And the military tribunes being abolished about the year 362, the consular government was fully reinstated.

According to the new regulation one of the consuls must be a plebeian; and L. Sextius was the person elected. But the senate having recovered from their panic, refused to confirm him, which was a necessary part of the ceremony. A civil war was the most probable consequence of this fresh contention; to avert which, Camillus was referred to by both parties. The expedient he hit on proved acceptable to all. This was the creation of a new officer called Prætor, to whom all civil matters were to belong; he was always to be from the Patrician order. Whilst the consuls who were henceforth to act in a military capacity only, were to continue as had been fixed by the laws of Stolo and Sextius.

This interposition of Camillus produced an amity between all ranks of Romans, to which they had long been strangers. The great games were therefore celebrated on this joyful occasion; and two new officers called Curule *Ædiles*, presided at them. They were distinguished by ivory chairs in which they sat; and their chief duty was afterwards to regulate all festivals and amusements; and to see that no novelties were introduced in matters of religion. At first this appointment was confined to Patricians; but in a very short time it also was opened to the plebeians.

In memory of a transaction that so happily prevented a domestic war, Camillus caused a temple of Concord to be erected, in the view of the principal public assemblies; not long after which he was carried off by a plague that afflicted Rome. He lived to his eightieth year or upwards; having gained more victories, and performed more essential services to his country, than perhaps any who followed or preceded him. Besides his valour, wisdom, and true patriotism, he possessed a benevolent and

forgiving heart. His passions were his servants, not his masters. And take him altogether, I know not one Roman superior to the great Camillus.

Scenic shows were about this time introduced amongst the Romans. They were of the nature of pantomimes, and soon after somewhat like plays were performed. But the stage never flourished at Rome, as it did among the Greeks; for players were highly respected by the latter people; whereas the Romans deemed them infamous: And so it continued till Cæsar gave them a more favourable reception.

About the time of Camillus's death, a very strange adventure is recorded by the Roman historians. They say the earth opened in the Forum; on which the Augurs being consulted, pronounced that it would never close, till that which constituted the Roman strength should be thrown into it. Various things were tried in vain, till at length M. Curtius a Patrician youth conceived a Roman horseman was intended by this prediction. He therefore resolved to remove this calamity by devoting himself

to destruction. And equipping himself as a Roman knight he leaped his horse into the chasm; which, if this account is to be credited, immediately closed upon him.

Corruption had already entered into the Roman elections; for a law was now made, to prevent solicitations for office; owing to bribes being notoriously given. For the first instance a plebeian was about this time raised to the dictatorship. The usual mode, when such a power was necessary, was for the Senate to order the Consuls to name one to that office. And the Patrician Consul being absent, the plebeian one appointed C. Martius Rutilus, who was of his own order. This so highly irritated the Senate, that they in their turn opposed the levies. But the people, proud of seeing one of their body raised to such a rank, crowded to enroll themselves. Rutilus then marched against the enemy with a powerful army, proving fully successful. In return he was voted a triumph by the people; who enforced it, though the Senate absolutely refused its confirmation.

When the time for electing new magi-

strates came, the Patricians had another stroke at the plebeian dictator. They alledged he could not hold that election, because none but a Patrician could go through the necessary Auguries. The people were too tenacious of all religious ceremonies to get over this; and the dictator being obliged to resign, a Patrician was appointed to preside. The Patricians had also at this time sufficient interest to get both Consuls chosen from their order. This being contrary to the late law, occasioned fresh disputes. But after a few years, the necessity of one being a plebeian was again established.

The Gauls had several times made unsuccessful attempts to revenge the death of Brennus. But a fresh and formidable army approaching; whilst a Grecian fleet hovered at the same time upon their coasts, a new dictator was appointed. This was Camillus, the son of him, whom you have seen so famous. And imitating his father, he beat the Gauls, besides preventing the threatened invasion. It was soon after this, that Carthage renewed and enlarged the treaty which began in the year 508. The principal heads

of this latter agreement were, that they should live in friendship with each other; and that the Romans should carry on no traffic, nor make any new settlement, beyond the fair promontory of Africa. The Romans were likewise restrained, from all trade with Sardinia, and every part of Africa, except Carthage itself. Rome was also open to the Carthaginians, but it was agreed that any Latin cities taken by the Carthaginians, after being plundered should be delivered up to Rome, as also all Prisoners of such states, as were in alliance with the Romans. The spirit of the two nations is contained in this small outline. For Rome had no care as to her commerce; whilst that was the great drift of the Carthaginian negotiation.

The interest of money was at this time lowered from one, to half per cent. and in order to adjust fresh disputes which had arisen between debtors and creditors, it was agreed that the sums then owing should be paid by four equal installments. The one down, and the rest at the end of the three next years respectively.

The wars which were perpetually carried

on by Rome, with one or other of its neighbours, are unworthy our attention; but there was one that now broke out of more importance. The Latines had been for a considerable time the allies of Rome. They had acquired the same knowledge of arms: And to all appearance were equally numerous and powerful. It should indeed seem that they thought themselves superior; for they meditated no less than the subjection of the Romans. When hostilities commenced, aware of the contest, Rome chose two of her greatest generals to the Consulate. These were Manlius Torquatus, and Decius Mus. And the Latines having taken post near Mount Vesuvius, the Romans encamped in the same quarter.

The Consul Manlius, in this situation, gave out an order, that no Roman should fight till he was commanded to do so, under the penalty of death. This was to prevent an injudicious action being brought on. But Manlius was so unfortunate, as to have his own son the first transgressor. He had behaved with great courage, and slain his adversary. Manlius, therefore, embraced him

as a father; but as his commander, ordered him for immediate execution. And this dreadful example secured the obedience, and perhaps the success of his army.

Whilst the Latines and Romans were thus posted close to each other, both Consuls declared, that they dreamed the victory would belong to which ever side lost a General. They therefore pledged themselves to each other, that which ever wing first gave way, the Consul leading it should instantly devote himself. In the action that ensued, this proved to be Decius's. He then sent for the Pontifex Maximus, that he might fulfil all necessary forms. The first was putting off his armour, clothing himself in his senatorial robe, and standing on a javelin. He next covered his head, his hand touching his chin, and repeated after the Pontifex Maximus as follows: — "O Janus, — Jupiter, — Mars, — Romulus, — Bellona, — and ye Lares and Novensiles. O all ye heroes who dwell in heaven, and all ye gods who rule over us and our enemies, especially ye gods of hell; I honor you, I invoke you, I humbly entreat you, to prosper the arms of the Romans, and to

transfer all fear and terror from them to our enemies ; and I do for the safety of the Roman people, and their legions, devote myself, and with myself the army and auxiliaries of the enemy, to the infernal gods and the goddess of the earth."— Having said this he mounted his horse, and rode full speed amongst the enemy. He was soon destroyed, but the wing he had commanded were so animated by this example, as to become irresistible. And the Latines were defeated with the loss of three fourths of their army.

The Campanians, who had before been subjected to Rome, now openly declared for the Latines ; who by their means made fresh head against Rome. But both were entirely subdued, and all their lands divided amongst the Romans. A body of 1600 Campanian Knights were, however, an exception to this general deprivation. For having proved faithful to Rome, they not only retained their possessions, but received pensions for their services. And they had all the rights of Roman citizens, except the privilege of voting.

In the Consulate of Manlius and Decius Mus, Alexander, King of Epirus, and bro-

ther to Olympias, the mother of Alexander the Great, visited Italy. He came in aid of the Tarentines, who had a war with the Brutians, a neighbouring state. But he took that opportunity of forming an alliance with Rome, whose fame was now extending beyond the narrow limits of Italy.

The Latines made some insignificant struggles to shake off the yoke which had been imposed on them. At the time that Alexander conquered Darius, they were however finally subdued. Many of their cities were razed. Their gallies were taken and destroyed. The beaks of these vessels being of brass, some of them were placed in the Forum, in the spot from which public speakers harangued the people; and which, from this very circumstance, was called the *Rostrum*. About this period a material change took place in the manner of enacting laws. Whatever new thing was proposed, must originate in the Senate; and if it was approved of in that house, the votes of the people were to pass on it by centuries, taken in *comitia*. An infringement of the law made by Camillus also happened much about the same time;

for a Plebeian was elected to the Prætorship. This is all that I think necessary as to Rome, and there is nothing more as to Italy, that for the present is worth our observation.

FIFTH LETTER.

IN this *Æra* two very important changes took place, as to the greatest powers of the world. The Greeks, and particularly the Athenians, were so brave and virtuous when Darius Hystaspes mounted the Persian throne, that they were able to bid defiance to the utmost exertions of him and his successor. But they soon copied the vices of the Asiatics; and at length became subservient to Philip and his son Alexander. At that period the Macedonians were less luxurious, and infinitely more warlike than the Greeks. But the most effeminate of the forces led by Alexander, were far superior to the best of those which served in the armies of Darius Codomannus. And the consequence was, the total subversion of the Medo-Persian Empire. Whilst some states had thus sunk beneath

their own depravities, and the Macedonian, or Grecian Empire, had gained its summit, other nations were rising into consequence. Carthage, Syracuse, and Rome, were becoming formidable in their respective quarters. The descendants of Gomer were also filling all the northern and western parts of Europe. And fishing and hunting being as yet, their only means of life, even those extensive regions were become too narrow to contain them. Thence the excursions of the Gauls, who passed the Alps in search of new settlements. And thus every epocha displays the increase of population, and the rise of new and distant nations.

Navigation and commerce now begins to wear a settled aspect. Carthage took the lead in both, and we find her anxiously securing a pre-eminence in these important branches. Thence her commercial leagues with Rome; the first we hear of in the world. The Greeks; and also the maritime parts of the Persian Empire, likewise possessed extensive navies. And their various quarrels were frequently decided on the water. But this period is still more remarkable for the progress

of the finer arts. And in them the Grecian states, both of Europe and Asia, and particularly Athens, most peculiarly excelled.

Architecture, painting, and statuary, flourished through all the Grecian cities. Music was also highly improved; and poetry was greatly cultivated. Pindar excelled in lyric composition. *Æschyles*, *Sophocles*, and *Eurypides*, were eminent for tragedy. And *Hermippus*, and particularly *Aristophanes*, were distinguished by their low and comic humour.

Early in the *Æra* I now treat of, *Parmenides* invented rhetoric. The greatest Grecian orators soon after made their appearance in succession. And *Demosthenes*, the most celebrated of them all, has not been excelled even to this day. The greatest heroes, and most distinguished patriots amongst the Greeks, are likewise found between the reigns of *Cyrus* and *Darius Codomanus*. But in the very same space, we behold the Grecian nations pass their summit of virtue and improvement, and hasten to decay.

Hypocrates, another Greek, brought physic to so great perfection, as to be yet in high

estimation. Astronomy was improved on by Anaximander, the disciple of Thales; and Cleostratus, Harpalus, and Meton, added to that knowlegde. In the year 444, Herodotus, a native of Halycarnassus in Asia-Minor, flourished as a prose historian. And though Sanchoniathon, Berosus, and Manetho, wrote before him, they are so little in repute, that he is stiled the Father of History. Thucydides and Xenophon are the next celebrated historic writers. And from thenceforth, till some centuries after the birth of Christ, we have a regular account of the most material transactions of mankind.

Philosophic enquiry was greatly encreased in this last period. Pythagoras, who was born in the Island of Samos, was cotemporary with Zoroaster. He travelled first into Egypt, where he remained till Cambyses took him prisoner, and brought him to Babylon. He afterwards visited different countries of Greece, and at length settled in Crotona, a city of Italy. There he taught the sciences, and was one of the first who made music systematic. He is supposed to have had some notion of the sun being the center of our system.

But the doctrines for which he is most remarkable, were, that the soul existed before the world. That after a man died, his spirit passed through such animals as suited his dispositions, till it again reanimated another human body. In general, he said, the soul forgot its former state, though he alledged, that he himself well knew, what bodies he had thus occupied. He therefore abstained from all food that ever had life, and taught his followers to do so also. It is said, he could converse with animals, and that he had also the gift of predicting events. But I can scarcely believe that he asserted, as some say, that he had a golden thigh, and was the son of Apollo. His powers were however greatly envied, and he lost his life in a sedition which they occasioned. After which his disciples were called the sect of the Italics.

Socrates far excelled Pythagoras, in the justice of his notions. He taught that there were three principles in nature. God—Matter—and Ideas. God, he said, was the universal intellect—Matter, the subject of generation and corruption—and Ideas, the incorporeal substance of the Deity. The soul he

affirmed to be immortal, and that it would be happy or miserable according to its conduct here. And he therefore applied all philosophy to practice, alledging, that it was incumbent on man to be active in every duty.

Whilst Socrates flourished at Athens, the sect called Sophists arose. The art taught by them, was to use such arguments as should make the wrong side of any question appear to be right. But Socrates had such discriminating powers, as to show them constantly in error. And he evinced the ill consequences of such instructions so fully, as to bring their schools into the greatest odium.

Of all Socrates's scholars, Plato was the most celebrated. He was descended from the great Codrus, King of Athens; but was infinitely more esteemed for his knowledge and abilities, than for his rank. He began with exercising his talents in poetry, but dropped it on his acquaintance with Socrates. Besides the instructions of that able master, he visited Egypt and other countries, spending a considerable time in Italy amongst the followers of Pythagoras. But at length he set up a school at Athens, in a place

called Ecademus or Academus, from whence his disciples got the name of Academicks.

Zeno, an Elean, had before this taught Logick, but Plato greatly improved upon it. He was also very conspicuous in geometry and mathematicks, and was the first who introduced a grammatical study of languages. He lived to a great age, and was applied to for instruction by different countries. But he never took any public office, contenting himself with the enjoyment of his private patrimony.

Aristotle, a descendant of *Æsculapius*, who was born at Stagyræ, in Thrace, studied under Plato, and became his greatest favourite. Being eminent for his knowledge, Philip, King of Macedon, put Alexander under the tuition of Aristotle. But when Alexander passed into Asia, his master set up his school at Athens. Ecademus was then in the possession of Xenocrates, another scholar of Plato. And therefore Aristotle got a place called the Lyceum, where soldiers had been usually disciplined. It was his custom, as the Lyceum was capacious, to walk about instructing his pupils who attended him. And

they were from this circumstance called the sect of Peripateticks.

Besides adding to logick, he threw great light on physicks, ethicks, and metaphysicks. He also collected the first library of any consequence that had yet been seen in the world. It consisted of between 4 and 500 volumes; and he left it to his scholar and successor, Theophrastus.

The great superiority of Greece, in this æra, must appear evident. All those great men I have been now calling to your observation, were of Grecian extraction. And Zoroaster and Hystaspes, who were Persians, are the only men, besides, amongst the heathens, distinguished at this time for their wisdom and knowledge. The world was likewise improved as to its notions of futurity. Any just ideas of another life, chiefly began amongst the heathens, by means of Zoroaster. And it is worthy of observation, that he spent some time in Chaldea. Now by the captivity of the Jews, the Mosaic dispensation must have been well known in that country. Daniel could not have been very long dead, and he had filled, when living, some very high

posts in that kingdom. Zoroaster's notions of God, and future rewards and punishments, in most fundamental parts, do not far differ from the account in the bible. It should therefore seem, that the all-wonderful hand of God had given the Gentile world a fresh light, by means of the captivity of his chosen people. And I shall here conclude my comments on this part of Universal History.



END OF SECOND VOLUME.

